

SCHOOL LIFE

OFFICIAL JOURNAL OF THE ★ ★ ★ ★ ★
OFFICE OF EDUCATION

AMONG THE CONTENTS

- Educational administration*
... the growth of a profession 5
- Conference on children and youth*
... at the call of the White House 9
- The public library*
... a community center 11
- School property accounting*
... handbook of key information 14
- Research in the U.S.S.R.*
... service to a rapidly developing system 18
- Geneva Conference*
... 77 nations discuss textbooks and manpower 24
- Education of Alaskans*
... a report of a cooperative research project 28

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OCT 28 1959

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October 1959

Tasks of Education

WE should never allow the aims of education to be defined simply in terms of the economic demands of our society. We cannot deny the importance of these demands, and we must do our best to fill them, but the higher obligation of education is to see that competence also includes the ancient virtues of loyalty, sensitivity to beauty, humility, breadth of viewpoint, patience. It is here the humanistic studies, the emphasis on people rather than subjects, and the concern for the ultimate reaches of the human spirit and for eternal truths have their part to play. It is my firm conviction that education must be the critic as much as the servant of society, for values of crucial concern to humankind are too often lost or obscured in a workaday world. In the end it is education that must save us from ourselves.

From *Tasks of Education* by Nathan Pusey, President of Harvard University. Reprinted from *New Frontiers of Knowledge, a Symposium by Distinguished Writers, Notable Scholars and Public Figures*, p. 41. Published by permission of the Public Affairs Press.

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH, EDUCATION, AND WELFARE • ARTHUR S. FLEMMING, *Secretary*

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Brief. * * * * *

EDUCATION AND GOVERNMENT

Reports * * * * *

New position established

BECAUSE of the increasing importance of program development as a part of the Office responsibility in drafting and recommending educational legislation, Commissioner Derthick has established a new position in the Office of Education: Assistant Commissioner for Legislative and Program Development. He has appointed the present Assistant Commissioner for Legislative Services, Ralph C. M. Flynt, to fill the new position.

Civil defense education

EVERY adult American should be able to protect himself, his family, and his community in case of military or natural disasters. To do so he must know the principles and techniques of survival. By agreement with the Office of Civil and Defense Mobilization, the Office of Education has assumed responsibility for directing and coordinating the teaching of civil defense to the American public through existing adult education programs.

The Office has begun the program by negotiating contracts with State departments of education in Florida, Kentucky, Minnesota, and Texas for the development of Civil Defense Adult Education Programs. Each of these States is initiating a program this fall by sending out instructor teams to conduct training courses in civil defense for adult educators; in turn, these educators will teach adults

in their communities the principles and techniques of individual, family, and community protection in time of manmade or natural disaster.

The program will expand in the 1960 fiscal year to include additional selected States.

Office expands field operations

BECAUSE it recognizes that certain services can be most effectively provided by staff members stationed in the field, the Office of Education is adding representatives to the nine regional offices of the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare. These representatives will either work more directly with institutions of higher learning participating in the programs of the National Defense Education Act or will coordinate Office field services.

The Office is assigning a specialist in higher education to each of the nine regional offices under the program direction of the Division of Higher Education. These specialists will work with the more than 1,200 colleges and universities participating in NDEA programs and will also provide other services to higher education. They will make a continuing appraisal of the needs of institutions of higher learning for other services within the capacity of the Office of Education to provide.

To coordinate the activities of program representatives in the field and to provide general educational consultative service, a regional representative responsible to the Commissioner of

Education is being assigned to each regional office. They will provide general informational service on Office programs, coordinate in the field all Office programs, provide consultative services to the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare and other agencies of the Federal Government conducting educational programs, assist in coordinating programs with State educational agencies, and provide other services requested by State education agencies through the Commissioner. *Their activities will in no way affect the direct relationships between the chief State school officers and the Commissioner, for they will not constitute an intervening organizational "layering."*

The nine regional field offices of the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare are located in Boston, New York, Charlottesville, Va., Atlanta, Chicago, Kansas City, Mo., Dallas, Denver, and San Francisco.

Arthur L. Harris has been appointed to the newly created position of Director of Field Services with responsibility for coordinating Office field programs. Dr. Harris joined the Office staff in 1946 and for the past 9 years has been Director of the Field Operations Branch, Division of School Assistance in Federally Affected Areas. Before coming to the Office, he had been public school administrator, instructor at the University of Hawaii, teacher in the Yale Graduate School where he obtained his Ph. D., and director of education at the Poston, Ariz., Relocation Center during World War II.

20 years of progress

EVERY year thousands of crippled children are getting a new lease on life through the work of the crippled children's program. And every year research is finding new ways to help such children. For example, new drugs which can now largely control epileptic seizures and a changed public attitude toward epilepsy are making it possible for many children to lead a more nearly normal life.

These and other facts were recently made known by Katherine B. Oettinger, Chief of the Children's Bureau.

The program for the crippled children is made possible by a Federal-State partnership established by the Social Security Act of 1935. On the basis of their medical and financial resources, the States define the crippling conditions of children they will accept for treatment and operate their programs through State agencies, using hospitals and other treatment centers. The Federal Government, through the Children's Bureau, collects facts about treatment methods, offers consultation to the States, assists them in serving more children, and helps finance the training of workers who will serve handicapped children.

Since the establishment of the program much has been accomplished: Between 1937 and 1957 the number of children served increased from 110,000 to 313,000 and the rate per 1,000 children served from 2.4 to 4.7. Recent progress has also been good. Between 1950 and 1957 the number treated for epilepsy increased by 387 percent; for eye conditions, 234 percent; and for diseases of the nervous system, 162 percent. In 1950 only about 2,200 children with congenital heart malformations were served, but by 1958, because of rapid developments in diagnosis and treatment of heart diseases, more than 12,000 children were helped by the program.

The Crippled Children's program is now helping to establish and expand programs for services to child amputees. Reports from 30 States show that they have slightly more than 2,000 children who lack one or more

limbs and who can benefit from prosthetic devices and training.

National Library of Medicine

BY its 125th birthday in 1961, the National Library of Medicine will have a new \$7-million, 5-story building to house its collection of medical literature—the largest collection of its kind in the world. The Library, which was begun in 1836 by the Surgeon General of the U.S. Army, is now part of the U.S. Public Health Service. Its new building will rise on the grounds of the National Institutes of Health, in Bethesda, Md., just outside the city of Washington. Enlarged quarters will make it possible for the Library to consolidate into its collections its historic material, now housed in rented space in Cleveland, Ohio.

Though the Library lends material only on a library-to-library basis, it is open to the public Monday through Saturday from 9 a.m. until 9 p.m. (evening service is suspended during July and August). It fills its many requests for loans from foreign countries with copies of material either on film or paper. Many visitors are drawn to its interesting exhibits, which the Library usually changes each month.

The principal bibliographic publications in the field of medicine published in the United States are products of the Library. It also prepares a monthly index to worldwide periodicals on medicine and special bibliographies as the need arises, such as the recent ones on space medicine and psychopharmacology. These publications are for sale by the Superintendent of Documents, Government Printing Office, Washington 25, D.C.

Traveling art exhibits

OUR TOWN," Thornton Wilder's American classic, is the inspiration for one of the newest of the art exhibits prepared by the Traveling Exhibition Service of the Smithsonian Institution for loan to schools, museums, galleries, and other institutions for a nominal fee. Composed of the

100 outstanding paintings submitted by schoolchildren in a project sponsored by *Arts and Activities* magazine, this exhibit reflects the impressions children have of their home towns.

Now in its seventh year, the Traveling Exhibition Service has nearly 200 exhibits for loan. Among those of particular interest to schools are several made up of children's art, such as "Children's Paintings from India," "Children's Paintings from Morocco," and "Swiss Children's Paintings." Other exhibits are of interest to schools because of their special appeal to children: "Japanese Dolls," an exhibit of more than 60 examples of this art; "Pup, Cub and Kitten, Common Wild Animals and Their Young," a photographic study of family life among common American wild animals; and "Image of America," a collection of photographs from the Library of Congress on American life and history since photography began.

Exhibits may be borrowed for 3-week periods. Fees range from \$35 to \$100. Most exhibits are matted and labeled, ready for display.

To learn the range of exhibits, the cost of renting, and facts about arrangements, write to Mrs. John A. Pope, Chief, Traveling Exhibition Service, the Smithsonian Institution, Washington 25, D.C.

Memo to employers

MOST of the boys and girls who quit school before graduation do so because they fail to see the relation between school and job success or need to earn money. To help reduce the number of school dropouts, the U.S. Department of Labor is sending a leaflet, "Memo to Employers," on ways in which employers can help schools with work-experience programs, to trade associations and employer groups. Interest stimulated by such programs and the wages they offer keep many students in school. Copies may be obtained from the Department of Labor, Washington 25, D.C.

PROFESSIONALIZATION *of Educational Administration*



By Fred F. Beach
Director
Educational
Administration

IN the Smithsonian Institution in the Nation's Capital, there is a chart of unusual significance; it shows the order of rank of occupations in colonial society in 1607. At the top is councilman, followed by preacher, gentleman, carpenter, blacksmith, sailor, bricklayer, mason, drummer, laborer, surgeon. Educational administrator is not in the list because this occupation had not been born.

In the years since 1607 there have been dramatic changes in our society and in the occupations serving it. For example, the surgeon who was then at the bottom of the list has today been elevated to a place at the top. This complete change in status of the surgeon is of more than passing interest to educational administrators. Unmistakable signs indicate that educational administration is now passing through stages in its development toward professionalization that parallel the growing period of the profession of medicine.

The evaluation that society places on a particular vocation is determined by (1) how that vocation meets the needs of society, (2) the knowledge and skills required to perform the tasks of the vocation, and (3) the standards set and maintained by participants in the vocation.

In this age when education has become vital to our progress and survival as a Nation, professional competency for directing the education of the people of the country is an indispensable requirement of our so-

ciety. Educational administrators must be trained in the knowledge and skills that are essential to produce this competency, and high standards in professional training and practice must be established and maintained in order to insure the required quality. This is the great challenge to those who direct the administration of the Nation's educational enterprise. If educational administration is to best serve society, it must take its place among the top professions.

A New Profession

It is extremely doubtful whether any organized educational program designed exclusively for the preparation of school administrators was offered in any recognized college or university in the United States prior to 1900. Few colleges offered courses at the graduate level that could by any stretch of the imagination be termed appropriate formal educational experiences for school superintendents or their administrative aides. Columbia University, in its catalog for 1899-1901, listed only four courses in educational administration: School administration, seminar—administration of public education in the United States, national educational systems, and practicum—the professional training of teachers. The program purported to prepare school administrators was an extension of teacher education identified in the catalog as "A graduate course leading to the Higher Diploma for research and investigation in any field

of education, and for the highest professional training of teachers in colleges and normal schools, and of superintendents, principals and supervisors of public schools."

When we consider that Columbia University was one of the recognized pioneers in the subsequent development of professional education for school administrators, it is readily apparent that educational administration in the United States is relatively new.

The question may arise then regarding the way in which school administrators were prepared for their work prior to the development of formal education programs suitable for professional preparation. An honest reply would be that most school administrators—school superintendents, principals, and their administrative aides—had no formal training for the specialized services they were called upon to perform. They were mustered primarily from the ranks of successful teachers, but often experience, and, at times, formal education were not considered important enough prerequisites to disqualify those seeking administrative posts.

Once appointed, the school administrator performed the duties required of him by law and the school board that employed him; the more enterprising practitioners worked to improve the schools. Successful experience was the most significant indicator of competence in educational administration; thus the astute practitioner worked his way up acquiring admin-

istrative know-how in the smaller districts and trading on this experience to get better paying positions in larger districts. If any damage resulted from this practice, it was borne largely by the smaller districts.

The professionalization of an occupation or related occupations is in many respects a social and a political process. Professional status must be earned over a long period of time at both the individual and the organizational levels. In the development of any profession, individuals achieve status first. The respect dearly won by dedicated practitioners provides the foundation for professionalization at the organizational level. A full-fledged profession is one that has reached the advanced stages of organization under which a pattern of self-government is adopted and enforced.

Steps Already Taken

Any occupation that requires a long period of specialized study or training ultimately gains some recognition as a profession. This is particularly true when the practitioners must complete specified periods of preparation and earn advanced degrees to satisfy the educational requirements set by a recognized institution of higher education for an occupation or related occupations. There are at present at least a hundred institutions of higher education offering programs leading to advanced professional degrees or professional diplomas in educational administration. Obviously, there is a firm educational foundation for the profession of educational administration.

In the development of any profession, strong associations are formed to promote the general welfare of individual members. These associations usually originate as friendly gatherings of persons engaged in a particular occupation or related occupations and eventually evolve into organizations that regulate membership by establishing and enforcing standards that must be met by members. The American Association of School Administrators (AASA) is the overall national asso-

ciation for school administrators. There are a number of other associations of educational administrators functioning at national and State levels, and most of them have working relationships with the AASA. The foundations of association have therefore been firmly laid for the profession of educational administration.

To complete the professionalization of an occupation or related occupations, however, the practitioners must collectively provide for and conform to a recognizable pattern of self-government. There must be a regulatory force within the profession—a moral force capable of disciplining members who violate the trust placed in them by the public they serve, a moral force that insures quality service, and a moral force that protects those who have need of the services provided by practitioners of the profession.

The Cooperative Program in Educational Administration initiated in 1950 and supported by the W. K. Kellogg Foundation has been particularly instrumental in awakening school administrators to the problems confronting them in the professionalization of educational administration.

Significant developments in recent years give heartening evidence that educational administration is rapidly becoming a full-fledged profession. The AASA has embarked upon an action program dedicated to the professionalization of educational administration. It has created a special Committee for the Advancement of School Administration with a full-time executive secretary. A milestone in its program was passed at the 1959 Atlantic City Convention of the AASA, at which the membership voted to amend the association's constitution as follows:

Beginning on January 1, 1964, all new members of the American Association for School Administrators shall submit evidence of successful completion of 2 years of graduate study in university programs designed to prepare school administrators and approved by an

accreditation body endorsed by the Executive Committee of AASA.

New organizations principally concerned with the professionalization of educational administration have been formed to improve the educational preparation of school administration. The National Conference of Professors of Educational Administration has been established to bring together the teachers of the profession. The University Council for Educational Administration has been established to bring together the universities offering a doctor's degree program in educational administration. The National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education has formed a unit particularly concerned with the formal approval of programs for the professional preparation of school administrators.

Tangible evidence of the development of the profession is further provided by the emphasis now being placed on graduate degrees as a requirement to qualify for certificates for school superintendents and other administrative posts in the several States.

School administrators are much concerned about the new profession that they are forming. The formation of a professional government has presented obstacles, but none have thus far been insurmountable and the progress in the last decade has been very gratifying.

Steps Yet To Be Taken

While the profession of educational administration has advanced well into the organizational stage, for a number of reasons it has not yet achieved recognition as a full-fledged profession. Foremost, undoubtedly, is the uncertainty on what occupations should be included in the profession of educational administration. Many past efforts to improve school administration have centered on the school superintendency. The first official proposal to the W. K. Kellogg Foundation submitted by the AASA, for example, called for a project on the superintendency of schools. The Co-

operative Project on Educational Administration, which was subsequently approved by the Kellogg Foundation, included school superintendents, principals, supervisors, and other administrators.

Obviously, prior to the establishment of an effective professional organization for educational administration, there must be a reasonably sound basis for identifying the occupation or related occupations that are represented. Who should be classified as school administrators? Should the profession be limited to superintendents of schools, State and local? Should the profession be open to administrative aides of superintendents, for example, deputy or assistant superintendents, directors, and supervisors or consultants; to principals and their administrative aides, for example, assistant principals, guidance officers, supervisors, and consultants; to presidents of colleges and universities and their administrative aides, for example, deans, business managers, directors of admissions, and registrars; to teachers of educational administration in our colleges and universities; to educational specialists in State departments of education and the Office of Education—or for that matter in other Federal and State agencies of government?

What are the occupations or related occupations in educational administration? Until this question is decisively answered, no defensible educational program for the profession as a whole can be advanced.

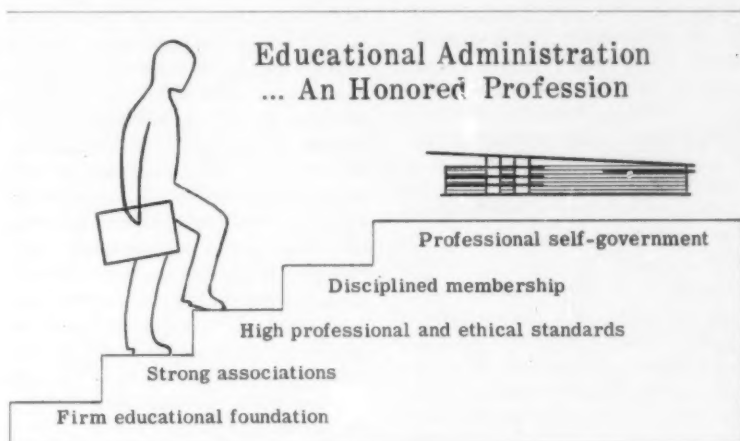
Once the occupations to be included in the profession of educational administration are agreed on by leaders in the field, it will be necessary to determine what shall constitute the basic or fundamental program of education for the profession. Acknowledging that areas of specializing do exist in any profession, particularly when a number of related occupations are represented, it will be necessary to make adequate provision for extending the basic program to meet the most pressing educational needs.

Much of the research conducted to

determine the work of the superintendent of schools should be very helpful in program development. The Southern States Region of the Cooperative Program in Educational Administration for example, found the superintendent's "job" covered eight critical task areas: Instruction and curriculum development, pupil personnel, community school leadership, school plant, school transportation, organization and structure, staff personnel, and school finance and business management.

edly very poor, but there is no basic education program for the profession from which any reasonably objective judgment on quality may be made.

Professional integrity should dictate that every institution that claims to prepare school administrators should provide at least the basic educational program for educational administration. Since no educational foundation program for educational administration now exists, each institution is free to chart its own course, which in effect means that any



When we realize that the superintendents of schools in large districts must delegate much of their responsibility in these so-called "critical task areas," it may be that the "superintendent's job" as defined by SSRCPA is representative of the profession of educational administration.

In any event, it is of paramount importance that firm agreement be reached on the educational foundation program for the profession and on the extensions to this basic program that are essential to permit the flexibility required for specialization.

We do know that, in addition to the graduate schools, some 300 institutions of higher education purport to prepare school administrators. Some of these institutions offer programs that are undoubtedly excellent, some offer programs that are undoubt-

edly very poor, but there is no basic education program for the profession from which any reasonably objective judgment on quality may be made.

Once a basic foundation program is established, it will be possible to ascertain under objective criteria what institutions have the capacity to prepare school administrators. The recently organized University Council for Educational Administration is much concerned with the problems of establishing standards for institutions that offer graduate programs in educational administration. The Council in setting criteria for institutional membership has provided a rallying point from which the profession can work toward the development of solid en-

forceable educational standards. The Council could well become the agency recommending the standards for the profession on matters concerning the educational preparation of school administrators.

The University Council for Educational Administration—or any similar agency—will need the support of everyone concerned with the improvement of educational administration before it can be called on to exercise essential leadership for the profession. Somewhere along the line it will be necessary to name the institutions of higher education providing programs for the preparation of school administrators that are acceptable to the profession. This cannot be accomplished until the members of the profession develop the organization that is necessary to take authoritative action. The experience of other professions should give ample guidance. The medical profession was prodded into exercising a more forceful regulation of its graduate schools by the facts turned up in a study sponsored by the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teachers. The story told by the Flexner report* alerted the medical profession to the condition of many institutions purporting to offer programs of medical education. The medical profession, once cognizant of the state of medical education, acted promptly to correct the shortcomings.

Since any full-fledged profession is made up of individuals, it is imperative that decisions be made on their demeanor, particularly in professional matters. Members of a profession should live by a written code of ethics that explicitly regulates their conduct. This code should be rigidly enforced. Minor violations should bring censure, major violations discrediting the profession should result in disbarment.

Currently, membership in many associations for school administrators

may be gained by any practitioner on the payment of fixed dues. This by no means elevates the profession in the eyes of the general public. The associations of school administrators must serve as authoritative forces representing the profession. They must present a common front at all levels—national, State, and local. One of the most pressing problems of the profession is that of combating the practice, common in some parts of the country, of selecting school administrators without regard to professional preparation or experience. In fact, some States require no professional qualifications for superintendent of schools and other important posts in educational administration. Where this practice may be followed, the profession is obviously not recognized; in fact, the implication arises that any reasonably intelligent person can do the work required, and the need for university training is seriously questioned. When associations of school administrators accept these persons as members, they grant approval to the practice. This practice must cease. The “good fellow approach” in associations must give way to the professional approach.

Efforts must be made within the profession to gain some voice in formulating State certification requirements for school administrators. In

professional organization. It reflects the ability of practitioners in a profession to regulate their activities so as to provide the maximum benefits for the common good and general welfare of all members of the society they serve. One thing is certain, where there are no nationwide professional standards, practitioners of the occupations subjected to regulation under the law are at a decided disadvantage in making their common views known.

The Key, Professional Self-Regulation

Full professional status is reached only when practitioners of the profession are organized so that they can effectively present a common front. Organization and the power to make and enforce professional standards are the two essential elements of professional unity.

Anarchy in professional pursuits provides the atmosphere in which unqualified practitioners may operate without censure. There are many people who now believe that no special preparation or training is necessary to do the work of educational administration. At least part of this belief arises from the fact that school administrators have not yet promulgated standards for the profession that would indicate otherwise. School administrators must convey to the general public the complex nature of their work; they cannot do so effectively as individuals.

The promising developments that are now taking place are encouraging signs of what may be termed the crystallization of the profession. School administrators, as a group, are alert to the problems facing them. They realize now that their house must be put in order before the profession of educational administration may command the respect it should rightly be accorded. If educational administration is to best serve society, it must take its place along with medicine among the top professions. This is the real challenge to those who administer the Nation's schools and colleges. The future looks bright.

American Education Week, 1959

“PRAISE and appraise your schools” is the theme chosen for American Education Week, November 8–14, 1959.

Begun in 1920 by the American Legion, the National Congress of Parents and Teachers, the National Education Association, and the Office of Education, American Education Week each year affords citizens an opportunity to salute and study their schools.

many respects the degree to which State occupational licensing requirements parallel the nationwide standards set by a profession is a positive indicator of the effectiveness of the

* Abraham Flexner, *Medical Education in the United States and Canada*, The Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching, Bulletin No. 4, 1910, 346 p.

By Ephraim R. Gomberg
Conference Executive Director

The Golden Anniversary White House Conference on Children and Youth ... *A process of citizen action*

HOW successfully are we meeting the needs of our young people? How can we improve our attitudes, our techniques, and our services? What are the main challenges of the years ahead?

These are the questions that America attempts to answer every 10 years in its traditional White House Conferences on children and youth. These same questions will be dealt with in fresh and exciting ways when 7,000 people meet in Washington on March 27-April 2, 1960, for the Golden Anniversary White House Conference on Children and Youth, called by President Eisenhower.

America's rapidly changing society creates a real demand for such conferences. The conditions of life shift so quickly that the solutions of yesterday often fail to meet the needs of tomorrow—especially where our young people are concerned. Therefore, the Presidents of the United States have issued a call once every 10 years since 1909 for a citizens' conference which has focused national attention on where we stand with regard to our responsibilities for the coming generation.

What will be the special emphases on 1960's problems—the new challenges that stem from a burgeoning youth population under 18 that is expected to reach 79 million in the next decade?

In the first place, it must be stressed that the White House Conference on Children and Youth is a *process* rather than a 5- or 6-day series of meetings. This process spans the 11 years from the initiation of preparation for the current

conference to the next decennial conference in 1970. Combined within the process are citizen preparation, citizen financing, citizen participation, and citizen followup.

During the past year, each Governor appointed a State Committee for the 1960 White House Conference on Children and Youth. Represented on these committees are lay and professional people interested in children and youth—people who serve on agency and institutional boards and committees and who, for all or part of the 10 years since the 1950 Conference have been concerned with the young. These people, working through the State Committees, have sought answers that will tell us of the progress made since the last White House Conference and facts that will provide guideposts for action in the 10 years to come. They have worked with many thousands of people within each State, with organizational structure carried down to the regional, the county, and sometimes the local levels. They are staging Little White House Conferences with workshops, with provisions for recording the findings, recommendations, synthesis, and conclusions, and for feedback. They have collected studies made in the past 10 years and reports on experimental projects dealing with problems of youth and have conducted surveys, polls, and research programs. These data are being compiled into the State reports which are being submitted to the White House Conference and will be digested into study material for use of the delegates at the 1960 Conference. They will also provide the framework of program

content for the Conference itself.

Preliminary statements of "primary concerns" or study outlines indicating the range of focus of the 1960 Conference have already been received from 65 percent of the States and Territories. Based on this material, main topics of interest throughout the Nation appear to be:

JUVENILE DELINQUENCY—laws and law enforcement, courts, prevention, treatment, institutions—listed by 23 States, the District of Columbia, Puerto Rico, and the Virgin Islands.

EDUCATION—school curriculum, finance, buildings, teachers—listed by 23 States, Puerto Rico, and the Virgin Islands. Of these States, 8 specifically mentioned a concern for the education of gifted children in addition to concern for children at all levels of ability; 6 States mentioned concern for the need for guidance in the schools.

HEALTH—the general health of the young, health services in the school and the community—listed by 23 States; 3 States also mentioned a concern with the "low physical fitness" of youth; 7 mentioned mental health as part of general health; and 2, nutrition. Two mentioned infant and especially perinatal mortality.

HANDICAPPED CHILDREN AND YOUTH—physically, mentally, or emotionally handicapped—mentioned by 21 States, Puerto Rico, and the Virgin Islands.

EMPLOYMENT—job opportunities, vocational guidance, and training—listed by 19 States, Puerto Rico, the Virgin Islands, and the District of Columbia. Ten States, Puerto Rico, the Virgin Islands, and the District of Columbia specifically mentioned the problem of counseling, training, and placing school dropouts.

RELIGION OR RELIGIOUS AND SPIRITUAL VALUES—mentioned by 18 States and the Virgin Islands.

WELFARE SERVICES—the need for ex-

panding and improving these services for children and youth, particularly by providing better trained professional personnel—listed by 16 States and Puerto Rico.

FAMILY LIFE—in the sense of child-rearing attitudes and practices, parental discipline and authority, the example and inculcation of values and responsibility—listed by 13 States.

LEISURE AND RECREATION—facilities, personnel, programs—listed by 16 States, Puerto Rico, and Virgin Islands, and American Samoa. In American Samoa this is the sole major concern relating to children and youth.

MIGRANT CHILDREN AND YOUTH—listed by 8 States.

MINORITY GROUP CHILDREN AND YOUTH—listed by 7 States.

Other subjects indicated by the States are: Population mobility problems, public housing, and urban renewal as they affect youth, mass media, teenage illegitimacy and unwed mothers, high school marriages, venereal disease among teenage youth, teenage driving, obligations of military service, problems of radiation and water pollution, and sanitation.

Embracing this wide range of specific interests is the overall theme of the Conference: How can we "promote opportunities for children and youth to realize their full potential for a creative life in freedom and dignity?" Viewed from this perspective, the Conference process includes far more than the delinquent, or the neglected child. It requires that the Nation take a hard look at the ordinary, the "average" boy and girl, as well to see how conditions influence their creative potential.

In addition to the farflung activities of the State Committees, the Conference has the support of 500 national organizations representing every discipline, every area relating to the young. These organizations are assembling studies and research and sending them to the Conference staff in Washington. And the departments and agencies of the Federal Government having programs touching children and youth are again sharing in the responsibility for preparation of the Chart Book for the Conference. This highly significant document pre-

sents in an easily grasped, visual form the major trends, facts, and figures relating to youth during the last 10 years.

The purpose of this vast amount of background material now being assembled in Washington is to provide a nationwide inventory of all pertinent facts about children and youth in our time. Once compiled, analyzed, and printed, it will be put into the hands of the delegates meeting for discussion next March in Washington. It will serve as "homework" in preparation for the intensive sharing of ideas and experiences that will be concentrated into 6 days of group discussion, forums, and theme assemblies making up the Conference program.

Shortly after the first of the year, some 7,000 people will receive invitations from the President of the United States to attend the Conference. The delegates will include nominees of national organizations, State White House Conference Committees, and others. The total delegation will be broadly inclusive of urban and rural representatives, youth, minority groups, business and labor, and the varied social and economic groups comprising the United States. More than 700 of the delegates will be youth and young adults. And through the cooperation of the Department of State, 500 citizens of other countries will be invited to participate as guests.

Planning already is under way to insure the practical application of the lessons learned from the Conference. Persons knowledgeable in techniques of citizen action are being consulted, materials are being assembled. The plan is to provide a built-in followup structure so that the lessons learned in the Conference process, the information gained, may become reality in the years ahead throughout America's home towns and States.

Thus, the 6 days of the Conference will provide a memorable view, a perspective from which to scale new heights of citizen achievement in meeting the needs of our youth; for that is the *process* called the White House Conference on Children and Youth.

Educational Testing International Sidelights

Educational testing to measure progress, achievement, aptitude, readiness, or some other phase of behavior or performance related to the education of children is receiving serious attention by educators in many countries. In some countries experiments are being conducted to examine the validity and usefulness of current testing programs. In others, research findings have already pointed up the need for a revision of testing procedures. What to measure, how to measure, and when to measure, as well as what use is to be made of results of a given test are questions being studied at seminars and expert meetings which bring educators from various parts of the world together.

International Collaboration

An international meeting of directors of educational research institutes, some national and others connected with universities, was convened at the UNESCO Institute for Education at Hamburg, Germany, early last summer. The countries represented at the meeting were Belgium, England, France, Germany, Israel, Italy, Poland, Sweden, and the United States. As a first step toward a much broader study, the group agreed to undertake a modest project related to testing. Believing that standardized tests now in use in various countries tell a great deal about achievement but very little about how that achievement is attained, the researchers have taken the study of intellectual processes as their goal. As an instrument the Hamburg meeting put together elements taken from standard tests in use in several countries. The testing program will be reviewed over the next few months.

Arthur W. Foshay, executive officer of the Horace Mann-Lincoln Institute for School Experimentation, Teachers College, Columbia University, was named director of the project and Robert L. Thorndike of the same university, general editor of tests. Editors for various aspects of the testing

(Continued on page 27)

The Public Library

... A UNIVERSITY OF THE PEOPLE

By Rose Vainstein, Public Library Specialist

THROUGHOUT its history the Office of Education has recognized the important role played by public libraries in the educational and cultural life of the Nation. As early as 1871, for example, the Commissioner of Education stated, "Public libraries are at once an important means and a valuable index of education . . . Year by year this office should be able to present the growth of this valuable auxiliary to all forms of culture." Later, in 1938, the President's Advisory Committee on Education included these statements in its report: "In the United States today it is accepted as axiomatic that the library is an essential and integral part of the educational system of the Nation. It therefore shares with the public school, the college, and with all other agencies of public education their common responsibility for the maintenance of those adequate standards of intelligence and citizenship that are essential in a democracy."

Deeply rooted in the heritage of this country, the public library is conceived of as a community center of information, inspiration, and recreation. Its services and resources are freely available to people of all ages—to children, teenagers, and adults—and with varying educational backgrounds. Frequently referred to as "the university of the people," the public library offers opportunities for learning in an informal setting, with a program of service geared to meet the needs of individuals or community groups at any interest or learning level.

The library's major responsibilities are to facilitate and actively encourage self-education, to meet the demand for reliable and comprehensive information, to support and participate in educational, civic and cultural activities of the community, and to en-

courage the constructive use of leisure time.

A Nationwide Study

In June of this year, the Office of Education released "Statistics of Public Libraries: 1955-56" as chapter 5 of the *Biennial Survey of Education in the United States—1954-56*. Prepared by the Library Services Branch, this study is the fourth in a separate statistical report series on public libraries begun 1939. Earlier Office of Education studies provided combined data on three types of libraries: Public, school, and society.

Service Outlets

Public library service is available through a variety of service outlets: Central libraries, branches, stations, and bookmobiles. The 6,249 public library systems represented in the 1955-56 study encompassed a total of 16,626 individual stationary agencies for the continental United States. Of these, 6,249 were central libraries, 5,252 were branch libraries, and 5,125 were library stations. These agencies are found in a variety of places—in residential neighborhoods, in the heart of downtown business districts, and in shopping centers. In rural areas, small public library collections or stations may be located in fire stations, in community centers, post offices, country stores, and schools.

The population served bears an important relationship to the level of financial support for public libraries, for only when the base is sufficiently large can adequate public library revenue be realized. In recent years, a population base of at least 50,000 persons—and preferably 100,000—has begun to replace earlier standards of 25,000.

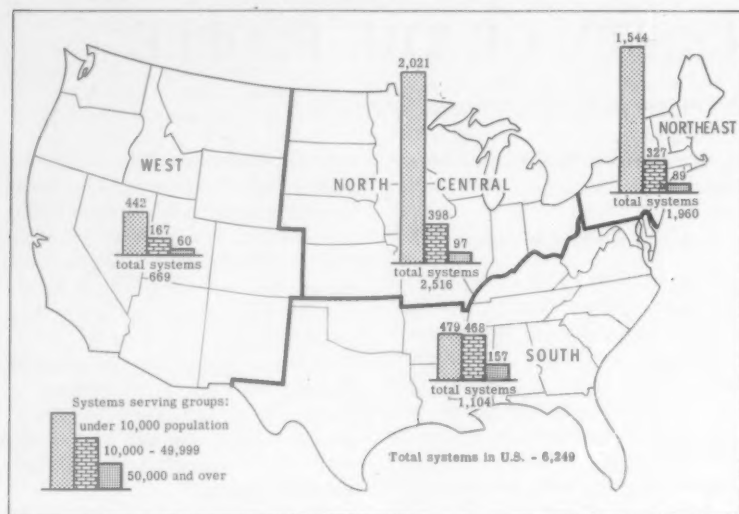
The greatest proportion of libraries

serving populations under 10,000 are located in the Northeast and the North Central regions. This is understandable since it was in these areas, the Northeast particularly, that the small association and subscription library had its beginnings, and from these social libraries stem a large proportion of our present-day independent libraries. Of the 6,249 systems reporting, only 403 (or 6.5 percent) served populations of 50,000 and over. The largest number of these are in the South.

To the total number of stationary agencies should be added the 874 bookmobiles operated by local public libraries, and the 39 units owned by State library extension agencies. By far, the largest number of mobile units are located in counties, regions, and other larger units of service. Urban and suburban library authorities, however, are also finding the bookmobile an effective means of quickly extending service to rapidly growing metropolitan areas. In addition, bookmobiles can provide public library service in areas where population density may not warrant full-time branch service. The bookmobile may stop at an individual farm, at the Grange hall, at a village crossroad, or a country school. In each instance, the bookmobile brings public library service within everyone's immediate reach, making the most effective use possible of book stock and library staff.

Each of these outlets—however large or small, stationary or mobile—should be considered as an integral part of public library service. It is through a cooperative "systems" approach and philosophy, as developed in the American Library Association's standards, that the goal of free, universal, and readily accessible public library service will be attained.

Regional Distribution of Public Library Systems, by Population Group Served: Fiscal 1956



Library Materials and Use

The most significant finding of the 1955-56 nationwide study was the considerable increase in public library reading. During the year, approximately 490 million volumes were borrowed from the public libraries reporting, an increased circulation of more than 100 million over 1950. A 4.2 per capita circulation of books was reported for 1956, as against the 3.4 reported in 1950, factual testimony to the growing use of library books at a time when predictions have suggested the contrary. Adult books accounted for 43.1 percent (or 210,809,000 volumes), juvenile for 44 percent (or 215,145,000 volumes) with 12.9 percent reported undistributed as to juvenile or adult circulation.

In their service to the community, public libraries provide a wide variety of materials. The most basic of these are books, and over 173 million volumes were available in 1956 through the public library systems of the continental United States. In addition to books, the following supplementary resources were listed by the reporting libraries: 6,218,000 pamphlets; 13,663,000 photographs, pictures and prints; 556,000 maps; 283,-

000 slides and filmstrips; 117,000 microfilms titles; 42,000 film titles; and 897,000 sound recording titles.

As a quantitative means of evaluating book collections, current standards suggest that at least 100,000 volumes of currently useful materials should be available in a single system. The assumption here is that a public library system should have a collection sufficiently large and diverse to meet varying community interests and needs, and in sufficient duplication to meet normal requests. Approximately 4.4 percent of the libraries reporting (272 systems) met this current standard of 100,000 volumes.

Percentage distribution of the number of volumes owned by public library systems: Fiscal years 1956, 1950, and 1945

Range in number of volumes	Percentage distribution of volumes by fiscal year		
	1956	1950	1945
Fewer than 6,000...	33.2	38.7	44.0
6,000 to 24,999...	46.1	44.7	42.5
25,000 to 69,999...	14.5	11.3	9.2
70,000 to 149,999...	3.7	3.2	2.5
150,000 or more...	2.5	2.1	1.8
Total.....	100.0	100.0	100.0

The trend, however, is encouraging, as can be noted from the comparative data presented in the table. In other words, there has been a gradual increase in the total number of volumes available in the public library systems.

Reference Services

In addition to the lending of books, one of the important services of the public library is the provision of information and reference on a wide range of subjects, and at various reading levels. In 1955-56 for the first time in its nationwide studies, the Office of Education attempted to measure and report this service quantitatively. With approximately 25 percent of the libraries reporting, a total of 19 million reference questions were answered. The term "reference" included all transactions in which library resources for reference, research, and advisory service had been made available through direct assistance of a staff member. It excluded questions which required only the direction of readers to shelves.

Reference inquiries vary greatly, from the identification type of question which takes a relatively short time to answer to more complex questions which may take many hours of research to answer. Questions come from high school students, businessmen, housewives, senior citizens—in fact, from people in all walks of life.

Typical of library reference questions are queries such as "What universities offer courses in work with exceptional children?" "What are the names of all the Chief Justices of the Supreme Court and the dates of their appointment?" "Who received the Nobel Peace Award in 1950?" "What were the 'bid' and 'ask' prices of AT&T on June 20, 1953?" and "What city has the best all-year round climate for a couple planning to retire?"

Other requests might be for the preparation of reading lists such as one on peaceful uses of atomic energy or the crisis in the Near East, perhaps for an adult with grammar school edu-

cation, or for a college graduate with failing vision. Understandably, requests for information are as diverse as the community itself.

Adult Education

Public libraries make an important contribution to the growth and development of informal education. The scope of its activities and resources in this area of service cannot be effectively portrayed through the statistical tabulations of a quantitative study such as this for 1955-56. For example, not reflected in the statistics of use and resources is the fact that materials in foreign languages are becoming increasingly popular and that public libraries are purchasing not only foreign language books, but also language records. Many out-of-school adults are learning a foreign language for the first time; others are brushing up on languages they learned in high school or college.

The public library not only provides book and information service but also extends its resources out into the community. An example of this extension might include service to shut-ins, a program through which those who are homebound because of advanced age, illness, or physical incapacity receive public library service in a variety of settings—in their own house or apartment, in nursing and convalescent homes, or in hospitals.

The public library further contributes to community growth and development through program guidance to various groups and organizations; through educational discussion programs centered on Great Books, world affairs, contemporary literature, the space age, or American education; through lectures, forums, and film programs; through displays and exhibits; and through participation in educational television and radio. However, as Secretary Arthur S. Flemming pointed out in a recent address, the base of community adult education must be broadened and intensified. He said, "I think we have to lift our sights and do an infinitely better job in this area (adult education) than we are now doing. Our

greatest resources, in order to do that job, are the libraries of the nation."

Hours of Service

The usefulness of libraries is partially determined by the number of hours they are open to the public, provided the hours and days of being open are selected to insure maximum potential use. Approximately one-fourth of the public libraries (1,666) indicated they were open to the public for 43 or more hours a week. Only 759 were open 61 hours or more.

Hours of service are determined by many factors—budget limitations, shortage of professional librarians, and changes in use of leisure time.

Income

Local public funds continue to be the main source of public library income. Of the total income reported for 1956, 87.3 percent (\$161,894,000) was local; 2.7 percent came from State grants (\$4,976,000); 4.3 percent was reported as income from endowments and gifts (\$7,912,000); and 5.7 percent (\$10,665,000) came from other sources. No Federal funds were available during fiscal year 1956 for public library purposes since the first year for which Congress appropriated funds under the Library Services Act was fiscal 1957.

Local public library revenue stems mainly from a general or real property tax, with a few examples of revenue from other tax sources. These include penal fines, dog taxes, delinquent tax collections, severance taxes, and gasoline tax refunds.

Expenditures

Operating expenditures for fiscal 1956 amounted to \$170,223,000, plus an additional \$12,263,000 for capital outlay. The largest single expenditure item was that spent on library staff salaries. This amounted to \$103,795,000 or 61.0 percent of the total operating budget. Library materials (expenditure for books, periodicals, audiovisual materials, and binding) accounted for \$30,333,130 or 17.8 percent, a slight decrease from the 18.5 percent during fiscal 1950.

In a significant research study¹ made possible through a Carnegie grant, it was found that a budget expenditure of \$100,000 was the dividing line between adequacy and inadequacy of public library service for a single system. In 1956, only 3.9 percent met this standard, a slight improvement over the 2.5 percent figure reported in the 1950 nationwide study.

Although public library expenditures have risen 55.1 percent since 1950—from \$109,777,000 to \$170,223,000—this amount still represents a very small share of the total public expenditures. When compared with expenditures for all purposes, as reported by the counties, cities, townships, school and special districts in the United States, public library operating expenditures were less than 1 percent of that total.

Personnel

The number of full-time professional librarians reported was 13,822, showing very little change over that reported for 1950. The largest number of professionals (7,224) were employed by 184 public library systems serving populations of 100,000 and over.

An increase of 114.4 percent was noted in the number of part-time professional librarians which rose from 1,643 in 1950 to 3,522 in 1956. A total of 29,974 persons were employed full time and 21,657 part time by the reporting libraries. The greatest general personnel increase found since 1939 was in the clerical classification which rose from 24.4 percent of all personnel to 38.3 percent in 1956.

Summary

Although many purposes and functions can be attributed to the public libraries of our Nation, two remain primary—the promotion of enlightened citizenship and the enrichment of personal life. Good community interest, understanding and support are essential for the full achievement of these educational objectives.

¹ Robert D. Leigh, *The Public Library in the United States*. New York: Columbia University Press, 1950.

NEW STANDARDS FOR SCHOOL PROPERTY ACCOUNTING

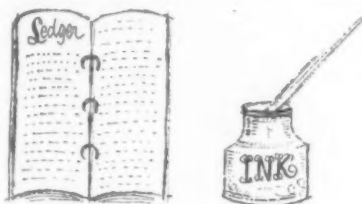
By PAUL L. REASON, *Associate Chief,*
and GEORGE G. TANKARD, JR., *Specialist, Educational Records and Reports*

SCHOOL property management is a big operation. More than \$3 billion are spent annually for new school property by the people of the United States, with an estimated total of \$28 to \$30 billion already having been invested. An operation of such magnitude can function properly only when there is a continual flow of accurate and meaningful information about the property. Therefore effective methods of property accounting need to be practiced in every school system if the requirements for new school plants are to be met intelligently, and if existing school property is to be managed soundly.

To provide the basis for effective school property accounting, the Office of Education has published a new handbook entitled *Property Accounting for Local and State School Systems*. In this handbook are the essential tools for providing key information about school buildings, equipment, and land at the local, State, or national level.

Five national education associations—the American Association of School Administrators, the Association of School Business Officials of the United States and Canada, the Council of Chief State School Officers, the National Council on Schoolhouse Construction, and the National School Boards Association, Inc.—cooperated with the Office of Education over a period of more than 2 years to produce the handbook. Each of the cooperating associations has officially approved the handbook as the basic guide for property accounting for local and State school systems in the United States and recommended “that Federal, State, and local agencies effect its use promptly and completely.”

The new property accounting handbook is the third in the State Educational Records and Reports Series undertaken at the request of a number of national organizations. The two previous in the series are Handbook I, *The Common Core of State Educational Information*, 1953, and Handbook II, *Financial Accounting for Local and State School Systems*, 1957.



Significance

As the result of nationwide cooperation in its development the handbook embodies the best thinking and recommendations of a substantial cross section of persons concerned in one way or other with the everyday operation of the public schools. Universal use of the handbook's standard accounts and terminology should:

- ▶ Help to insure appropriate recording of property data
- ▶ Improve the accounting for school property
- ▶ Improve the management and utilization of school property
- ▶ Improve school budgeting
- ▶ Aid in determining the adequacy of school property
- ▶ Facilitate the evaluation of property for insurance purposes

- ▶ Make possible the compilation of accurate local, State, and national summaries
- ▶ Facilitate comparison of information on property among communities and among States
- ▶ Enable local and State educational authorities to obtain more information needed in determining policy
- ▶ Improve the accuracy of information needed for policy determination
- ▶ Facilitate and improve reliable reporting to the public on the condition and progress of education
- ▶ Facilitate the determination of property needs at all levels—local, State, and national.

Major Emphasis

Major emphasis in the new handbook is on standard property accounts and terminology to be used in recording and reporting information about school land, buildings, and equipment. In the handbook, the term “property account” is defined as a descriptive heading under which is recorded a particular kind of information about land, buildings, and equipment used by school districts and other units that operate schools. The accounts and terminology are “standard” because participating groups have agreed on their definitions. As a result of such standardization, an account or term, when used, will mean the same thing to school officials from one part of the country to another.

The property accounts in the handbook are items of information to be kept on an accounting or record form by a local school district or by any other unit that might be operating schools. As used in the handbook,

they are of two basic types. The first type is that used for recording information on cost and quantity of property, for example, an account which reads "Cost of Building" or "Number of Regular Classrooms." The second type is that used for identifying and describing property, for example, one which reads "Date of Acquisition" or "Type of Building Construction."

The accounts are organized into a classification which is adaptable to any kind or size of school district. The major captions of the classification are as follows:

Abbreviated Classification of Property Accounts

SITES

100 Series

- 110. Site Identification
- 120. Area of Site
- 130. Cost of Site

BUILDINGS

200 Series

- 210. Building Identification
- 220. Size of Building
- 230. Cost of Building
- 240. Instruction Areas in Building
- 250. Administration Areas in Building
- 260. Circulation Areas of Building
- 270. Service Areas in Building
- 280. Service Systems in Building

EQUIPMENT

300 Series

- 310. Equipment Under Unit Control
- 320. Equipment Under Group Control

The handbook provides answers to questions on what information to keep and how to keep it on three categories of property accountability: (1) School plants, (2) supporting services facilities, and (3) equipment unassigned to a specific plant or facility.

In the first category, *School plants*, the handbook provides for the keeping of a set of records containing information on the total property comprising each school plant, thus accounting for each plant as a unit. It defines a school plant as the site, buildings, and equipment used by a school or by two or more schools which share common facilities.

In the second category, *Supporting services facilities*, the handbook provides for the keeping of a set of records containing information on the total property comprising each supporting services facility, thus accounting for each facility as a unit. It defines supporting services facility as a piece of land, a building, or a part of a building that serves more than one school plant, for example, an administration building or a parking lot for school buses used in transporting pupils.

In the third category, *Equipment unassigned to a specific plant or facility*, the handbook provides for the keeping of a record on each piece of equipment under unit control, and each equipment group under group control. It defines equipment unassigned to a specific plant or facility as equipment that is used by or for more than one school, and equipment that is in storage. Examples of such equipment are school buses, power mowers used generally throughout a school district, and equipment in a warehouse awaiting distribution or disposal.

In establishing these three areas of accountability, the handbook makes it possible for school officials to maintain adequate records for all of the land, buildings, and equipment of a school district.

Each account included had to be one that:

- ▶ Would provide information important to a local school district in the operation of its school system
- ▶ Was important to local school districts throughout the country, not just to certain school districts or certain regions of the country
- ▶ Should be comparable among local school systems
- ▶ Could be maintained with reasonable effort

Movable Equipment

Keeping track of movable equipment in a school district has always been a formidable task. Use of the handbook's provisions for keeping equipment under either unit control or group control can ease this task.

By *unit control*, the handbook means that a piece of equipment is accounted for as a single unit or entity in itself and that it retains its separate identity in the records, either on an individual record card or as a line item in a ledger. For example, a card might be made out with pertinent information for each typewriter owned.

By *group control*, the handbook means that equipment items which are the same in function, material, shape, and size are accounted for in groups of like items rather than as single units. For example, a school district might have 100 pupil desks which are

BUILDING RECORD				
Name of School	Grandin Court High School		School No. 131	
Name of Building	Grandin Court High School		Building No.	
Location	421 Page Street, Middletown, N. S. A.			
211. Use of Building: (If Vacant, Check Here _____)				
211.1 Schools in Building _____				
211.2 Supporting Services in Building _____				
General Building Data		Original Building	Change 1 Addition	Change Reduct
213. Date of Acquisition		11/6/35	2/8/46	
214.1 Date of Construction Contract		10/1/33	11/8/45	
214.2 Date of Acceptance		11/6/35	2/8/46	
215. Date of Disposal				2/8/
221. Gross Floor Area		28,660	1,850	€
221.1 Basement		8,000		
221.2 First Floor		20,660	1,850	€
221.3 Second Floor				
222. Pupil Capacity		350	50	
230. Cost of Building		\$500,000	\$50,000	€
231. Contract Cost		462,000	47,500	€
232. Architectural and Engineering Services		30,000	1,500	€
233. Legal Services		800	500	
234. Educational Consultative Services		200		
235. Miscellaneous Costs		2,000	100	€
Detailed Building Data		Original Building	Change 1 Addition	Change Reduct
No.	Area	No.	Area	No.
10	€ 000			

all the same. Under group control, one record card would be made out for the whole group of 100 desks.

Under both types of control, provision is made for recording pertinent information about the equipment. Guidelines are also offered to assist in determining which kinds of equipment to record under unit control and which to record under group control.

Property Record Forms

The handbook contains record forms which show how a school district might, through the use of standard property accounts, have information readily available at all times about its land, buildings, and equipment. The record forms are divided into two groups.

The first group consists of *individual property record forms* which show how records might be kept for each individual school plant, supporting services facility, piece of equipment, or equipment group. The second group consists of *summary type record forms* which show how certain pertinent facts about school property may be consolidated from the detailed accounts into totals for quick and easy reference.

Measures of School Property

Many individuals and groups are much concerned with certain basic measures of school property but are not particularly interested in the detailed property accounts. In recognition of this fact, a chapter has been included in the handbook dealing with certain key measures commonly used in planning, building, and managing school property. The measures are grouped into the three categories of land, buildings, and equipment.

In the land category are such measures as "Area of a school site," "Cost of land," and "Cost of improvements to site." In the building category are such measures as "Area of a building," "Cost of a building," and "Pupil capacity of a school plant." In the equipment category are such measures as "Cost of equipment," and "Replacement cost of equipment."

Other Features

The handbook contains other information which should aid school officials in organizing or reorganizing their property accounting systems. One chapter includes criteria for distinguishing supplies from equipment, a detailed list of material items in which each has been designated as an item of supply or equipment, and a discussion of what constitutes built-in equipment as distinguished from movable equipment.

The glossary defines terms used in the handbook and other terms which should be helpful in developing property accounting procedures for schools.

From Idea To Publication

The handbook was officially started on its way in December 1956 when a policy committee, meeting at the call of the U.S. Commissioner of Education, agreed on the overall plan for conducting the project and the part each cooperating organization was to take. Shortly afterward, at a 2-day planning conference in January 1957, the general shape of the Property Accounting Handbook was worked out by representatives of the cooperating organizations.

With the guidelines established at the planning conference, Office of Education staff then compiled the First Preliminary Draft of the Property Accounting Handbook.

This preliminary draft was critically examined at an advisory meeting of two representatives each from the Association of School Business Offi-

cials of the United States and Canada and the National Council on Schoolhouse Construction who met with Office of Education staff in June 1957. This 5-day meeting played a very important part in refining the document for consideration at the first national conference.

In November 1957 the first national conference met in Washington to consider the preliminary manual as it had been revised at the June meeting. The 4-day, page-by-page review by 21 representatives of the cooperating organizations improved the document and greatly furthered the project.

The manual was then revised again and, with the recommendations of the first national conference incorporated, it was put to the test in a series of eight 3-day regional conferences to determine its suitability under the variety of local and State conditions to be found throughout the United States. These conferences were held during March and April 1958 at Washington, D.C.; Boston, Mass.; Atlanta, Ga.; Little Rock, Ark.; Lincoln, Nebr.; Salt Lake City, Utah; Spokane, Wash.; and Chicago, Ill. They brought together the talents of 179 representatives of the cooperating organizations who considered the manual page by page. When the conferences were over, the great majority of items had stood the test and there was common agreement on them. The comparatively few issues on which differences existed were considered at the second national conference.

The second national conference was held August 6-8, 1958. Its membership, except in a few instances, was the same as for the first national conference. At this meeting, all remaining issues were resolved, and final decisions were made on the contents of the handbook.

Now published as U.S. Office of Education Bulletin 1959, Number 22, *Property Accounting for Local and State Schools Systems*, 193 pages, may be purchased from the Superintendent of Documents, U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington 25, D.C., at 75 cents a copy.

Plans submitted by some States participating in NDEA under title X indicate that, as one means of improving the statistical services of their State departments of education, they will put into practice the standard definitions, terminology, and measures recommended in the series of national handbooks.

Cooperative Research Projects in School Administration

By C. EUGENE KRATZ, *Research Coordinator*

RESEARCH in school administration and organization is one of the major fields in which projects are being sponsored under the Cooperative Research Program. *School Life*, December 1958 issue, described one of them, "Development of Criteria of Success in School Administration," directed by Daniel E. Griffiths, Teachers College, Columbia University. This study is designed to identify the major elements of the school administrator's job, establish behavior patterns of administrators, and provide a situational test which can aid in identifying persons likely to become good administrators. Since the last report all data have been collected, 232 elementary school principals have been tested, and sections of the final report are being prepared. In addition, two doctoral projects using preliminary data from the project have been completed, and the results indicate that the simulated situation may be used in testing theoretical propositions relating to school administration.

A Number of Projects

A number of other projects being conducted or recently completed are briefly described below.

Andrew Halpin, at the University of Utah, is directing a project, "Organizational Climate of Schools (Preliminary Phase)." The study seeks to describe and objectively measure the variables which create the "feel" of a school. The provision of such objective description will open the way to measuring change in the social atmosphere of a school as a criterion of administrative effectiveness.

The "Role of the Elementary, Junior High, and Senior High School Principal" is being investigated at Harvard University by Neal Gross as a preliminary phase of a long-range study. This study will seek both common and discrete elements of the

principals' role on each educational level studied.

"The Development and Refinement and Testing of Tools, Descriptive Devices, and Analytical Methods for Measuring School Quality in Terms of Specific Educational Goals," was directed by the late Donald H. Ross, former Assistant Commissioner for Research, New York State Education Department. The results indicate that even school systems in communities on comparable socioeconomic levels differ in the quality of education they provide. The staff has developed preliminary measures for assessing the quality of education within comparable schools.

A project at the University of Wisconsin, "Long-Term Study of Educational Effectiveness of Newly Formed Centralized School Districts in Rural Areas," directed by B. W. Kreitlow, seeks to determine the effects of school district reorganization in rural communities on educational opportunities, educational results, educational cost, and community and neighborhood social structure and processes.

Roger G. Barker, at the University of Kansas, has just begun a study, "The Effects of School and Community Size on the Education of Children." Its purpose is to determine whether methods producing "good" educational results in schools and communities of one size can be transferred to those of another size.

"The Development of Fiscal Relationships of State Departments of Education," a completed study, was directed by S. E. Burr, Jr., at The American University. This study was designed to provide a method of investigating the fiscal operation of State departments of education within State governments.

A study being completed at Michigan State University seeks to learn

"How State Legislators View the Problem of School Needs." The project, directed by L. C. Ferguson, investigates the most significant influences on legislators' preceptions of the problems of school needs.

In the West Virginia State Department of Education, "The Incentive Approach to School Improvement," directed by Craig Wilson, will test the effect of an incentive approach in developing and using local improvement programs which are aided by a State department of education. The incentive is the chance for local groups to work in self-selected directions toward goals on which they and the State have mutually agreed.

William R. Odell of Stanford University is directing a project on "Community Understanding as a Factor in the Financial Support of Public Education." This study seeks to determine whether citizens would adequately support education if they were fully informed of the need and whether current communications techniques are effective in adequately informing the public about school needs.

In a Comprehensive Program

The studies mentioned here are merely the beginnings of a comprehensive program of research into school administration and organization. The continuing growth of this field depends on the practitioner and the researcher alike. Practicing administrators who face problems but do not wish to initiate research are urged to communicate that problem to the Office of Education or any active research agency. Active researchers who are members of a sponsoring group are encouraged to present proposals to the Office of Education and to those other agencies which support research in the field of education.

SOVIET EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH: ITS ORGANIZATION AND TASKS

By William K. Medlin, Specialist for Eastern Europe

A RECENT study trip to the Soviet Union enabled me to observe some educational research facilities and to discuss major problems with leading Soviet researchers. Their efforts are directed toward finding new relationships in the mechanics and psychology of learning as well as seeking specific solutions to problems raised by new educational policies of the government.

Practically speaking, the primary aim of research is to discover, through scientific methods, the nature, functional characteristics, and relationships of the subject under consideration. Research thus helps to provide data, materials, or principles for solving human problems. When applied to education, it tends both to respond to and to alter different cultural patterns shaping national systems of education. Education research in the U.S.S.R. is to some extent characterized by this dichotomous tendency. It is well to keep in mind, however, that the Soviet philosophy of research is defined in terms of creating conditions for investigating educational foundations of a planned, socialist society in transition to a communist form of social order. While the predominant theme in this philosophy is dialectical and historical materialism (commonly called "Marxism-Leninism"), some of the methods and organization of educational research carried on by the Russians are such as to make their systematic study useful.



Experimental School No. 204, Moscow, under the supervision of the Russian Academy of Pedagogical Sciences, May 1959.

The scope and resources of the Soviet research program are extensive. They have built a kind of "research and development" organization capable of great and flexible service in the interests of Soviet schools. Furthermore, they have given much care to the system and procedures of research organization; to the collection of vast documentary materials, domestic and foreign; to scientific classifications of data and library holdings; and to the dissemination of research findings and other experiences into broad educational circles. All of these activities are coordinated by the Government's central educational planning authorities who are primarily concerned with providing the educational components of the U.S.S.R.'s economic goals for industrial and agricultural development.

The major economic requirements have definite effect on patterns of educational research, and at the same time they bring sizable resources to the command of research institutions. These institutions are fundamental framers of educational laws, plans, and methods which emerge from intensive research and experimentation. All of these forces contribute to making Soviet research in education, along with research in the other sciences, a question of first national importance. While it is unwise to look at the Russians' research efforts in terms of our own, a study of their activities is instructive.

History and Organization

Scientific research in support of education was carried on in imperial Russia mainly in the Biological Laboratory in St. Petersburg (Leningrad) and at the Institute of Psychology of Moscow University. A research Institute for the Deaf-Mutes and Blind was first established in 1817. Work in these institutions continued after the 1917 Revolution and expanded into other special research institutes during the 1920's: Institutes of Scientific Pedagogy (in Moscow and Leningrad); Institutes of Methods (one for school work and a second for outside school activities); Institute of Polytechnical Education; Psychoneurological Academy, and others.

The organization of Soviet educational research, as we now know it, was established following an October 1943 decree of the U.S.S.R. Government. This decree called



The author with two other Office of Education staff members, Clarence B. Linquist, specialist in science and mathematics, and Marshall L. Schmitt, specialist in industrial arts and technical subjects, was sent by the Office of Education to the U.S.S.R. and Poland during May-June, 1959, to study methods of teaching. The November issue of *School Life* will carry observations by Dr. Lindquist and Dr. Schmitt.

for the reorganization of research institutions and the creation of an Academy of Pedagogical Sciences under the Ministry of Education of the Russian Republic (RSFSR). It also provided for the continuation or establishment of similar agencies, called scientific-research institutes of pedagogy, in other constituent republics of the Soviet Unions.

Because of the size and importance of the Russian Republic, which occupies about three-fourths of Soviet territory and has more than half of the U.S.S.R.'s populations, the Academy of Pedagogical Sciences was located in Moscow under the RSFSR Ministry of Education. The Academy therefore exercises national leadership in conducting educational research and occupies first place in the U.S.S.R. in terms of resources, equipment, personnel, experimental programs, and publications. In each of the other 14 Soviet republics there is at least one scientific research institute of pedagogy, and in some there are more (3 in the Ukraine, and 2 in Georgia). In all, there are 55 institutes in the U.S.S.R.

The Russian Academy is governed by a Presidium elected from the membership. This body, headed by a President (I. A. Kairov) and Vice Presidents (A. A. Smirnov and N. K. Goncharov), is a policy and executive committee directing the business of research between general meetings of the Academy. Two kinds of membership may be held in the Academy, that of full member and that of corresponding member, granted sparingly to outstanding educators.

The work of training and research is carried out by the many scientific-research institutes organized on broad functional bases. These institutes can confer higher (post-graduate) degrees in education: the "candidate of educational sciences," which normally requires 3 years of study and research, with a dissertation, following a 5-year college program; and the "doctor of educational sciences," conferred two or more years following receipt of the candidate degree and requiring a basic contribution to knowledge, with a dissertation.

There are eight such scientific-research institutes under the Moscow Academy; the first four are concerned with general educational problems and the others with special aspects of the educational processes. They are:

1. Institute of Aesthetics, for the field of music and art

2. Institute of Physical Education and School Hygiene
3. Institute of Teaching Methods
4. Institute of Theory and History of Education
5. Institute of Nationality Schools, where research is concentrated on problems in local minority tongues and the Russian language
6. Institute of Psychology
7. Institute of Defectology
8. Leningrad Institute of Pedagogy, where research is conducted on the basis of children's age.

Each of these institutes is divided into departments to which specific areas of research are assigned. For example, there are 12 departments in the Institute of Theory and History of Education: Didactics, upbringing (character education), experimental schools, boarding schools, preschool education, family education, administration, contemporary and comparative education, research on Krupskaya's works,¹ teacher education, polytechnical-industrial education, and foundations of Soviet education.

Each of these departments has a director and a permanent research staff. In the department of contemporary and comparative education, there are approximately 25 professional workers (including a number of translators) assigned to study major educational systems in the different areas of the world: British Commonwealth and America, Europe, Middle East and Africa, China and Southeast Asia, and others. The Director of the Institute, A. M. Arsen'ev (formerly an Assistant Minister of Education), explained to me that each department works continuously on questions within its competence and receives specific problems from the Ministry to work out. The Institute of Teaching Methods is organized so as to concentrate its work on three forms of the general educational school: City and rural secondary schools, and the basic 8-year school.

Each institute has several schools attached to it for experimental purposes. These schools are regular public schools and not specially selected; their pupils come from the city or rural area adjacent to the schools. Researchers

¹ Nadezhda Krupskaya, wife of Vladimir Lenin, was a teacher, experimenter, and writer on educational problems.

are in regular contact with these schools, and sometimes a project or experiment is conducted by a classroom teacher who has received research training.

The Academy's Ushinskii Library (named after a leading 19th century educator) is a significant and outstanding part of the educational research effort. The efficiently managed Library has about 20 professional employees on its staff devoting full time to educational collections. A functional division of the Library into two collections, domestic and foreign, facilitates the use and control over both kinds of materials. Three basic catalogs are maintained: One by subject, according to a number code system; one by author; and a third, which is a cumulative catalog of periodical literature according to subject, covering both domestic and foreign literature. Two members of the staff work full time on the periodicals catalog. The Library receives educational journals from many countries: over 50 American periodicals are received. I checked the author catalogs for certain American titles and found them recorded. The entire holdings include over 800,000 volumes, including foreign materials.

Other services performed by the Ushinskii Library are the compiling and publishing of lists of recent articles and books; the issuing of other types of bibliographies; the compilation of indexes and reading guides for researchers, teachers, and parents; and the conducting of research in the library science field.

Research and Information Activities

Research work and organization are directly supported by the central state budgets (Republic and Federal) and, ultimately, are programmed according to major governmental policies. Since the Soviet economy is a planned one, educational efforts are largely directed toward providing the trained personnel required in an ordered, developing economy. Research policy aims first of all at

meeting planned educational requirements. This relationship is perhaps best illustrated by the current research going on at top speed to implement the new program of polytechnical instruction in the schools of general education.

Resolutions of the 1952 and 1956 Congresses of the Communist Party of the Soviet Union, as well as other governmental measures (especially the December 1958 law on education), set new goals before Soviet schools. Briefly, these declared goals are to provide for every pupil an opportunity to acquire a scientific and technological understanding of industrial and agricultural processes, to equip every pupil with an immediately useful skill for productive work or domestic living, and to inculcate on every pupil sentiments of deep respect for labor, State property, and one's fellow worker. These broad goals have been termed "preparation for life" in Soviet education.

All Soviet educational research establishments are now devising new methods to achieve these goals. Last year hundreds, and this year thousands, of experimental schools have come under supervision of the Academy's research institute for developing new curriculums, methods of teaching (including textbooks), and forms of practical work experience. As teachers and researchers report their findings, the institutes formulate their recommendations to the ministerial authorities who put new programs into effect.

In laboratories and study rooms of the institutes, I saw evidence of work in such areas as development of the cognitive activity of pupils in the teaching process (especially in relation to new polytechnical curriculum); simplification in learning reading and arithmetic skills in the lower grades; the formation of character and teaching moral values, including Soviet patriotism; psychological preparation of future teachers; the principles and methods for meeting individual children's needs (such as "self-appreciation"), in terms of

handicaps and as regards a child's particular attitudes, peculiarities, and maturity; and understanding the internal, structural integrity of each school subject and its interrelationships with other branches of knowledge. These research activities are carried out under Soviet conditions and exemplify some of the major problems which educators there now face.

Research laboratories are supervised by scientists with advanced degrees and operated with the assistance of qualified engineers who have had higher education and technicians who usually have semi-professional training. Such technical aides often construct their own apparatus for experimental work. In the Kiev institute's laboratory for the study of nervous activity, I observed several "home-made" devices used for measuring and analyzing skills and behavior, including an apparatus with 108 electrodes terminating in a skull cap used for studying the brain's activities.

Experiments are carried on either in the laboratories or in schools, depending on the type of process and the size of the equipment used. During a 3-month period, nearly 100 children came to one institute's experimental shop (laboratory) for testing and observation in special "construction" exercises related to the schools' polytechnical program. Pupils are paid 5 rubles an hour (about 50 cents) for their willingness to undergo experimental observation. Each institute has its own general shop for construction and repair of instruments and equipment.

Although the research institutes vary in size and number on the staff, they appear to be well staffed, except for persons at the clerical level. The Institute of the Theory and History of Education alone, for example, has a professional staff of 120 people. The Institute of Teaching Methods is said to have still more. There are about 1,800 teachers on institute staffs in the nation. In addition to maintaining these regular staffs, institutes "farm out" projects to teachers interested in research work and in raising their

qualifications, so that much individual investigation is carried on outside the institutes. General physical facilities, such as buildings and equipment, are not on the whole of high quality. This feature does not seem to concern Russian researchers, however, for they insist that personnel and basic resources sufficient to do the job are far more important than new buildings and shiny tools.

Soviet educators have built up a large and well-coordinated system of scientific communication. The foundation of this system is their theoretical and methods journals, which are alert to report the most recent findings in research and teaching experiences. *Soviet Pedagogy* (*Sovetskaya pedagogika*) and *Public Education* (*Narodnoe obrazovanie*) are only two of several Russian monthlies which discuss general problems and publish readers' viewpoints. *Reports* (*Doklady*) and *News* (*Izvestiya*), published by the Academy, report scientific research findings and theoretical considerations. A series of subject-centered magazines, like *Physics in School* (*Fizika v shkole*), *The Teaching of History in School* (*Prepodavanie istorii v shkole*), and *Foreign Languages in School* (*Inostrannye iazyki v shkole*) disseminate the latest Soviet thinking on methods and instructional theories. Home rearing and relations between home and school are discussed in *Family and School* (*Sem'ia i shkola*). Major problems and new government decisions in education are reported on at annual meetings of the Academy and editorialized widely in the various journals. Soviet educators hold fewer professional meetings and have fewer professional or subject-centered and functional organizations than their American counterparts do. It might be emphasized, however, that through their meetings and press the Russians achieve a very high degree of coordination and compliance with national educational policies. This result is naturally facilitated for them through a highly planned program of economic and cultural development.

Two other institutions that should be mentioned in this connection are "inservice training institutes" (Institutes for Improving Qualifications of Teachers), and the annual holding of "pedagogical readings." The inservice institutes are located in every major city and in most provinces. They are permanently staffed by experienced teachers and professors skilled in their own fields. Here teachers take special day, evening, or summer courses to improve their methods or to bring themselves up to date on the latest developments. Close coordination exists between these institutes and central research organizations. The inservice training does not lead to any higher academic degree.

Soviet Commitment to Education, Report of the First Official U.S. Mission to the USSR, with an analysis of recent educational reforms, 135 pages, is now available from the Superintendent of Documents, Government Printing Office, Washington 25, D.C., for 70 cents a copy.

The 10-member mission, with Lawrence G. Derthick, U.S. Commissioner of Education, as chairman, visited more than 100 schools in their 7,000-mile tour of the U.S.S.R. This publication briefly reports their observations of Soviet schools.

Pedagogical readings are a series of nationwide competitions in the reporting of teaching experiences. Local districts first hold meetings where papers (usually on methods) written by teachers are read and judged by local educational authorities. The best papers are submitted for republic readings, and from there entries are sent to national readings. The Academy in Moscow holds an annual session to hear and select the outstanding contributions. Some of these are published, with financial rewards accruing to their authors, while others are put on exhibit as examples to the teaching profession. Success in these competitions helps teachers earn other awards, such as that of "merited teacher," which brings salary boosts and other benefits.

Conclusions

There is no doubt that Soviet educational research is a big and well organized business. Building on pre-revolutionary material and theoretical foundations, it has greatly expanded and now serves a rapidly developing mass public school system. It has received large support from the central planners, who now depend on educational research to devise the means and methods for equipping the schools to do the major tasks in the U.S.S.R.'s race for scientific and cultural supremacy in the modern world.

Although research goals are by and large established through planning, there is evidence of much purely experimental investigation, especially in educational psychology and education of the handicapped. It does seem to me, however, that limitations resulting from central control of research seriously handicap organic development: regional needs and individual creative innovations do not easily find accommodation in the official framework.

The coordination between research organizations and school administration and the systematic dissemination of research findings and practical experiences are achievements that attract attention. These achievements are really only a basis, a beginning which may well in the future enable Soviet education to develop at an extraordinary rate and in several directions. It is the growing capacity for change and the rate of change that strike me most in looking at this research organization. I am certain that there is much more than meets the eye in a cursory observation such as I was privileged to make, and the finer details of those attractive features of Soviet educational research might well receive further investigation. To remain alert to and to study developments abroad are attitudes that have enriched us in the past, and they help stimulate us to greater achievements consistent with our own cultural heritage.

LIBRARY RESEARCH *in progress*

By FRANK L. SCHICK, Assistant Director, Library Services Branch

IN the years since the conclusion of World War II and particularly since our entry into the space age, increased emphasis has been placed on all areas of research. Forced by its very nature to progress at slow speed, research has been impeded by the tardiness of the communication of its findings, which frequently results in duplication of efforts. There are few teachers who do not know of some students who, after considerable effort, have abandoned their dissertations because they learned that someone else has already traveled the same road.

In order to accelerate the reporting of research, some researchers are bypassing books and publishing their findings in scholarly journals. In turn, journals are now frequently giving way to "separates" or pamphlets, many of which are, for prestige and bibliographic reasons, later reprinted in periodicals.

One method of bridging the time gap between research and communication is the publication of periodicals or the establishment of columns in scholarly journals which describe research in progress. The following are illustrations of this type of publication: *Current Research and Development in Scientific Documentation*, Washington, D.C., National Science Foundation, 1959-; *Research Relating to Children*, Washington, D.C., Children's Bureau, 1949- (Bulletin, Clearinghouse for Research in Child Life); *Research Studies in Education*, Bloomington, Ind., Phi Delta Kappa, Inc., 1941-.

Beginning this fall a publication, *Library Research in Progress (LiRiP)*, will be issued reporting library studies.

To bring about such a publication for library-centered studies of statistical, survey, and research types requires the effort of many minds and meetings. The beginnings of LiRiP can be traced to June 1955 when the

Statistics Committee of the American Library Association recommended the establishment of a clearinghouse on library statistics. Financial problems and the reorganization of the American Library Association de-

NOTICE OF LIBRARY RESEARCH PROJECT

Please Report

individual or collective research projects in progress in all fields of library science and service (dealing with methods, techniques, developments, surveys).

Do Not Report

purely literary or bibliographical research, demonstration projects unless there is a formal plan of evaluation; studies of limited local or temporary significance.

Author(s) or principal investigator(s) _____

Position(s) and organization(s) _____

Address of organization(s) _____

Title of project: _____

Purpose (limit statement to 50 words or less): _____

Scope and Methodology of Study (limit statement to 100 words or less): _____

Sponsor and/or cooperative groups (libraries, library organizations, etc.): _____

Method of financing; e.g. amount of grant (if any) or stipend and source: _____

Publication references and/or plans, if any: _____

If no publication is planned, indicate under what conditions data and results will be available: _____

Format of publication (pamphlet, book, article): _____

Name and address of publisher if to be released separately: _____

Title of publication if released as part of another publication: _____

Source where copies may be secured if other than publisher: _____

Date project initiated: _____ Estimated terminal date: _____

If this project represents work toward an academic degree, please state degree and institution granting it: _____

Information supplied by _____ Position _____

Date _____

layed consideration until 1957 when the possibilities for broadening the functions to include all types of research and surveys were actively pursued. Recommendations were made that the Library Services Branch of the Office of Education assume the responsibility for such a clearinghouse, and during the last year preparation has been completed to publish *Library Research in Progress*.

This publication will provide basic information including brief descriptions of individual and collective research projects in progress in all fields of library science, services, and statistics. By making information on research projects widely available when studies are initiated rather than completed, LiRiP will fulfill a clearinghouse function and fill a gap in the professional literature. It will aim at avoiding overlapping of work, duplication of efforts, and the scattering of financial resources.

All librarians, researchers, foundations, faculty members of schools, and officials of educational and library associations and organizations are invited to report their own work or supply information of significant studies conducted by others. To accomplish a uniform style and to simplify editorial work, the *Notice of Library Research Project* (Form LSB-5) should be used.

All studies conducted in accredited and nonaccredited library schools should be reported regardless of whether they are undertaken as part of a formal degree requirement. However, the work of students enrolled in educational institutions should be submitted through heads of schools. This procedure will eliminate work of limited scope and insure that schools are represented in a manner approved by their faculties. Changes in projects will be noted provided they are sufficiently significant.

The issues will be published at infrequent intervals, approximately 5 or 6 times a year; publication plans permit release when enough project reports are on hand for at least 4 pages. Two months after the first announcements were made, over 100 projects had been reported. Less than 10 percent of them appear of limited value or need further clarification; 92

projects are of decided merit and will appear in the first two issues. They fall under the following categories:

Background: Philosophy, objectives; history of libraries, books, printing, and publishing; other media of public communication; reading; and censorship----- 15

Organization and Administration: External legal, policy, political and financial controls; internal organization; administration; interlibrary relations; and organization----- 14

Resources: Acquisitions; survey of resources; evaluation of books and other library materials; bibliographic and storage centers; interlibrary lending; and photoreproduction----- 9

Reader Services: Reference and information services; reader guidance and advisory services; adult education activities; and circulation analysis-- 6

Technical Processes; Documentation: Cataloging; classification; centralized processing; indexing, abstracting, coding; machine methods of identification, storage, retrieval; distribution of materials; and documentation-- 26

Personnel and Training: Organization and administration of personnel; inservice training; and education of librarians----- 11

International, Comparative, and Foreign Librarianship----- 7

Methods of Research and Evaluation----- 4

The professional staff of the Library Services Branch serves as an overall editorial board and considers projects by three criteria: (1) Whether they are in some or all aspects sufficiently new to warrant inclusion; (2) whether studies based on the operations of a single library are sufficiently broad in scope to warrant inclusion; (3) whether the information is sufficient to give readers a clear understanding of the study.

The editing of reports submitted is kept to a minimum. In order to stress the clearinghouse function the names and addresses of authors are listed, and readers in need of additional information are encouraged to

get in touch with the authors directly.

Request for free subscriptions to LiRiP have come from a surprisingly large number of foreign countries including Brazil, Canada, Denmark, Finland, France, Great Britain, Hong Kong, India, Israel, Italy, New Zealand, The Netherlands, Norway, and Rhodesia and Sweden. It was originally intended to restrict reports to research projects originating in the United States. Following the suggestion of many foreign libraries, it was decided to include all significant library research projects provided they are written in English. Requests for subscriptions are accepted regardless of country of origin.

While attempts have been made to inform librarians and educators in all types of educational institutions and libraries of *Library Research in Progress*, requests for subscriptions show decided differences. Of all requests received over the last 2 months, 34.6 percent originated with public libraries, 31.1 percent with higher educational libraries, 21.1 percent with special libraries, and 9.6 percent with school libraries; 3.6 percent came from individuals. The figure for special libraries includes requests from nonlibrary agencies.

The following list of the research projects which will appear in the first two issues will give school librarians an idea of the content of LiRiP: Analysis and Appraisal of the Distribution and Characteristics of the Work Load of School Librarians; Planning Guide for the Elementary School Library Program; A School Library Program for the Indianapolis School System; The Effectiveness of Centralized Library Services in Elementary Schools; State Department of Education Responsibilities and Services for School Libraries; An Analytical Study of Book Selection Policies and Practices in Elementary Schools of Iowa.

It is hoped that the pages of LiRiP will accurately reflect the library professions interested in reexamining prevailing practices and developing new concepts, thoughts, and techniques.

77-Nation Forum on Education

By FREDRIKA TANDLER, *Specialist*, and MILDRED HILL-MURRAY,
Research Assistant, International Education Relations

THE 22d International Conference on Public Education at Geneva, Switzerland, in July held particular significance since it marked the 30th anniversary of the establishment of the International Bureau of Education (IBE) as an intergovernmental organization. The occasion was celebrated by a special meeting of the IBE Council to which the conference delegates were invited. Each delegate was presented with a commemorative medal. Special tribute was paid to the first director of the IBE, Pierre Bovet; to the first two assistant directors, Adolphe Ferriere and Elizabeth Rotten; and to the two men responsible for the administration of the International Bureau of Education since 1929, Jean Piaget, the director, and Pedro Rossello, the assistant director, who were present at the meeting and at a commemorative luncheon.

Mr. Piaget sketched the early history and difficulties of the organization, and Madame Marie Leite da Costa, chairman of the meeting, spoke of the pioneering work of the IBE in comparative education and her appreciation of the early leaders who had undertaken and carried on a task of great importance to education throughout the world.

Over the years the International Conference on Public Education has drawn up 49 recommendations addressed to ministries of education. In the spring of 1959 a volume containing the first 47 recommendations was published by the IBE to commemorate the 30th anniversary of the organization as an international body. M. Piaget, in his address at the 25th Meeting of the IBE Council in July, referred to this little book as "a kind of Charter of Education." It is in this spirit that educators meeting year after year in Geneva have conceived of the recommendations they have adopted. The annual national re-

ports on progress in education indicate that many of the ideas expressed in this "Charter" have caught hold. Similarly, a comparison of recommendations voted at different times in the same field show a definite evolution of educational thinking.

Procedure

As in the past 13 years, the conference was held under the joint auspices of UNESCO and the IBE.

The 186 delegates, including 21 ministers and 14 deputy ministers of education, represented 39 IBE member nations, 38 participating nations, and 14 international organizations, among them the United Nations, UNESCO, the International Labour Organization, the Organization of American States, and the World Confederation of Organizations of the Teaching Profession. Since July 1958, Panama, Haiti, and Liberia have joined the IBE.

As in previous years, approximately one-half of the time of the 10-day conference was devoted to questioning heads of delegations on educational developments in their countries and about one-half to discussion of two special topics on which reports had been prepared by each country prior to the conference: "The Preparation, Selection, and Utilization of Primary School Textbooks" and "Measures to Promote Greater Numbers of Scientific and Technical Staff."

Unlike previous years, when a committee of six persons representing various areas of the world customarily drafted a recommendation on each of the special subjects under discussion, this year all delegates concerned with the textbook topic met as one committee, and all delegates concerned with the technical staff topic met as another. A six-member drafting committee was formed from members of each group.

The Secretariat of the IBE had drawn up, on the basis of official replies to its questionnaires, a predraft recommendation on each topic. Delegates were invited to propose amendments and to submit them in writing to the appropriate committee. The drafting committee afterward discussed at length all proposed amendments and accepted, modified, or rejected them in drafting its recommendation.

Before each recommendation was considered by the plenary session a draft of it was issued, allowing a second opportunity for amendment. The articles of the draft on which no amendments were received were adopted without discussion, but on the others an opportunity was given for one person to speak for and one against each proposed amendment and for the reporter to express his opinion before the vote. The revised procedure resulted in a smaller number of amendments being presented at the plenary session, and, in the opinion of the U.S. delegation, improved the quality of the recommendations.

The reporters for both the textbook recommendation (No. 48) and the staff training recommendation (No. 49) are very able men with long experience in education and in international meetings such as the Geneva Conference. The United States was represented on the drafting committee of the textbook recommendation and followed closely the work of the other drafting committee.

Highlights of the two recommendations addressed to ministries of education will provide some idea of the scope of the discussions.

School Textbooks

Recommendation No. 48, on The Preparation, Selection, and Use of Primary School Textbooks, which has 47 clauses, urges that textbooks should unquestionably be on a high

level, scientifically, educationally, and esthetically. Some of the major clauses are briefly summarized below.

Composition.—Specialists in educational research, specialists in the subject fields, and the teachers who will use the texts should collaborate in drafting texts, and proposed textbooks should be used experimentally in limited numbers of classes to permit publishers to get the suggestions and criticisms of educators.

Publication.—The added costs of illustrations, especially in color, are necessary and justifiable in books on abstract subjects. Illustrations are recommended to aid in comprehension, especially in books for beginners.

Distribution and purchase.—This section has a main theme: the free distribution of textbooks to all elementary school pupils logically accompanies compulsory education. In countries where it is necessary for parents or guardians to supply textbooks, the sales price should be kept to a minimum.

Textbooks and teaching methods.—Elementary school textbooks should reflect the progress made in educational science and facilitate the use of methods based on child psychology. Every effort should be made to insure that textbooks contain up-to-date facts, particularly statistics and scientific concepts. The school textbook is an aid and guide for both teacher and pupils and should not be considered as a substitute for good teaching.

The use of teaching guides in close relation to textbooks should be encouraged.

Textbooks and international cooperation.—The premise here is that elementary school textbooks should play a constructive part in the development of international understanding. All countries should therefore take steps to free textbooks "from any element which might prejudice understanding between nations, social groups, races or religions." Committees of educators should be formed for this purpose, jointly sponsored and drawn from countries concerned with eliminating from textbooks anything harmful to their understanding of each other. Regional or international educational organizations are in favorable positions to encourage the formation of such committees.

To aid in understanding, texts should supply more detailed information about other countries and the role of international organizations than texts presently used do. They should reflect sincere respect for other peoples and for international cooperation and understanding.

An aspect of international cooperation emphasized is the service rendered to authors, editors, and educators by libraries of international collections of textbooks. Educational documentation centers should keep up-to-date textbook collections and organize the exchange of textbooks among countries. Textbooks can be

improved by temporary international exhibitions of textbooks, by the lending of experts under technical assistance programs, and by the study of international collections.

Scientific and Technical Staff

There are 63 points in Recommendation No. 49, The Recruitment and Training of Technical and Scientific Staff. A few of them are briefly outlined below.

Requirements and planning.—Periodic surveys should be made by permanent bodies of specialists having access to all available sources of information at the national level.

In making estimates, countries administering other areas should consider their needs and include residents of the area concerned on panels of experts created to plan and to determine needs. It is advisable in planning to draw up and standardize precise definitions of terms.

Administrative measures.—Countries are urged to keep flexible all their plans for education to meet new requirements of technical and scientific training, in order to allow for rapid changes in science and technology. Specialized agencies of competence and authority should be in charge of promotion and coordination of recruitment and training of technical and scientific staff. Such agencies should have the cooperation of consultative bodies representing education, science and technology, industry



Panels in the textbook exhibit the United States sent to the Geneva Conference contained attractive and carefully selected textbooks, classroom teaching materials, and dolls, animals, and other objects made by elementary school children.

(both management and labor), and agriculture, and should participate in the framing of national policy in educational, scientific, and economic fields. Their work should be coordinated to avoid overlapping.

Financial measures.—All countries, whatever their economic or cultural level, should continue to increase allocations of funds for the training of larger numbers of technical and scientific staff, but this increased financial effort should not be at the expense of other branches of education. It may, however, be desirable for some countries to revise the structure of education to avoid any imbalance. Where the economic system of the country permits, industry should be encouraged to contribute to the expenditure, since it would be the first to benefit from an increase in training of scientists and technicians. Measures can be taken to foster private contributions.

Educational measures.—Every effort should be made to increase the number of secondary and higher institutions for training technical staff without lowering standards, in any new plans providing for technicians and for skilled workers as well as professional engineers and scientists, but avoiding overspecialization, particularly at the secondary level. Instead of merely multiplying the number of special courses, some countries may need to establish new sections, departments, or faculties. Theory should be integrated with practice by giving more attention to practical work in firms, laboratories, and research institutes and at the same time by increasing the number of advanced courses in physics and mathematics.

Since the shortage of technicians and scientists has adversely affected the recruitment of teachers for training such workers, every effort should be made to attract into the teaching profession technicians, engineers, and scientists who might otherwise be drawn into industry. Among measures suggested to increase the number of qualified teachers are adequate salaries, greater recognition of the im-

portance of the teacher's work, and social security for teachers.

In addition to employing full-time teachers, it might be useful for schools to engage production and research workers from industry as part-time instructors. Inservice training courses are necessary to keep the staff aware of progress in subject fields and in teaching methods. To attract highly qualified staff, institutions may first find it necessary to provide first-class laboratories and scientific libraries.

Children from the primary school onward should be encouraged to make simple experiments, and mathematics and science should be emphasized in elementary and secondary school curriculums, with sufficient time devoted to practical, experimental, manual, and agricultural work. The materials used in schools should be adequate and up to date. There should be continuing collaboration between teachers and scientists in studies to develop materials and equipment necessary for the basic understanding of science by secondary school pupils and university students. Mass media techniques and aids should be used to arouse the interest of students in technical and scientific careers. Educational guidance services should work with vocational guidance services from the elementary school level onward to discover technical and scientific talent. But the structure of the educational system should not permit the choice of prevocational courses to be made too early. Furthermore, schools should emphasize general subjects and everything which may contribute to intellectual development.

Workers should be given every opportunity for paid practical training at the secondary or higher level to enable them to qualify for higher posts.

Also commended is the integration of theoretical instruction with practical work in industry. Correspondence courses, possibly supplemented by audiovisual aids, may also help workers improve their technical knowledge and gain promotion. Access to higher education should be granted not only to graduates of sec-

ondary schools but also to workers by means of a preparatory course or an entrance examination. Generally speaking, any measure to advance the training of workers already employed is in the interest of industry and the workers and should be encouraged.

Social assistance.—Ideally, all types of public education should be provided free of charge, but since that is not always possible, it is strongly recommended that tuition fees be kept low, and that means be found for aiding future teachers. One of the major means of increasing the number of future teachers is through providing assistance to students and teacher trainees. Scholarships or grants for tuition and maintenance are the most effective form of aid.

Measures should be carried out to place graduates in suitable employment.

International cooperation.—Cooperation between countries is recommended in order to enlarge existing institutions and open new ones; to pool the resources of several countries in setting up regional technical and scientific institutions and possibly technical teacher training schools. International cooperation is needed to help countries finance the training of technicians abroad and to procure modern laboratory equipment.

The international exchange of educational administrators, technicians, and teachers contributes to the improvement of the training of future staff. The initiative taken by various international, regional, or national organizations, both public and private, in increasing scholarships for study abroad should be encouraged. It is essential, however, that the experts sent abroad understand the needs of the countries to which they are sent.

U.S. Participation

At the conference, during the question period reserved for discussion of education in the United States, delegates from other countries showed particular interest in the following

subjects: Financial assistance to students to make university and graduate study possible; ways of coping with the teacher shortage, inservice training of teachers; desegregation; tests and measurements and their role in the evaluation of pupil performance; special education; education of Indian children; educational TV; effectiveness of one-teacher schools; value of the comprehensive high school as opposed to special schools; purposes and advantages of the junior college; school finance; language teaching, especially at the elementary level; cost and effectiveness of language laboratories; below-college grade and college-grade technical training; and the role of the Federal Government in education and its implications for a decentralized system.

This year the United States exhibit on education had as its theme Elementary School Textbooks, and a very attractive display was arranged. Colorful picture panels showing the use of teaching materials in the classroom and a large number of well selected books, both basic and supplemental, illustrated the variety and quality of publications available to school children in each major field of study. Objects made by elementary school children in art classes added a creative touch sometimes humorous, sometimes esthetic. The exhibit will remain in the Palais Wilson until the close of the 1959-60 academic year when the United States plans to present the books on display to the International Bureau of Education for its international collection.

In line with the conference themes, the United States delegation invited all delegates to a showing of films, one illustrating the use of a sound film in conjunction with a specific textbook and two dealing with the teaching of certain scientific concepts, and one filmstrip on textbooks entitled "The Second Most Important Influence." The guests expressed a lively interest and discussed in some detail the effectiveness of audiovisual materials as an aid in learning.

Members of the United States delegation to the 1959 conference were:

Wayne O. Reed, Chairman, Deputy Commissioner of Education, Office of Education; Austin J. McCaffrey, Executive Secretary, The American Textbooks Publishers Institute; Thomas J. Mills, Program Director of Scientific Manpower, Scientific Personnel and Education Division, National Science Foundation; and Fredrika M. Tandler, Specialist, International Education Relations, Office of Education.

There can be no question that the exchange of experience and ideas made possible at this annual forum of educators from various parts of the world is proving its value to the cause of education generally.

Educational Testing

(Continued from page 10)

program include Walter Schultze of West Germany for reading, Gaston Mialaret and Fernand Hotyat of France for mathematics, Harry Passow of the United States for science, and Dr. Foshay for geography. In charge of the nonverbal intelligence test will be D. A. Pidgeon of the National Foundation for Educational Research in London.

When the testing instrument is satisfactorily worked out, it will be administered to a thousand 13-year-olds in Belgium, England and Wales, Finland, France, Israel, Poland, Scotland, Spain, Sweden, Switzerland, the United States, and West Germany. The particular age level was chosen as the one most closely approximating the average school-leaving age in European countries.

The experts meeting at Hamburg in no way regard this project as a means of establishing a comparison of educational achievement in one country with that of other countries. The chief focus of the project is to be on the administrative aspects of testing, and a limited sampling will be made. The purpose, as stated in Bulletin No. 1 of the UNESCO Institute for Educational Studies in Hamburg, "Intellectual Processes: An International Study of Intellectual Ability Achievement and Functioning," is to take a

first step toward an understanding of the consequences of our national plans and methods of teaching as they relate to the development of intellectual processes.

Testing Program in Japan

In recent years the Ministry of Education of the Government of Japan has undertaken a widespread national testing program in various subjects in an attempt to evaluate the success of the new postwar educational system and the present curriculum. The first tests, for elementary and lower and upper secondary schools, were conducted in 1956 in national language and mathematics; the second in 1957 in social studies and the sciences. The part of the first series dealing with mathematics has been reported in English in a publication of the Japanese Ministry of Education entitled *Mathematics Achievement Test in Japan: the 1956 Nation-wide Survey*, Tokyo, 1958.

Examinations in U.S.S.R. Schools

The examinations used in Soviet schools of general education are of one kind: tests of achievement in different subjects. These achievement tests are given in one of two forms, oral or written. They are given as class tests (*kontrol'nai rabota*) or as final examinations (*ekzamen*) at the end of the 7th (8th) grade in mathematics and Russian language, and on completion of academic work in grade 10 (11) covering a number of disciplines. (For an example of the statewide exams on the various subjects taken in the Soviet secondary school, see translations of the questions asked in *Final Examinations in the Russian Ten-Year School*, by William K. Medlin and George Myro, "Information on Education Around the World," No. 6, October 1958, U.S. Office of Education.) These examinations reflect the main concern of Soviet teachers: to measure the amount of prescribed knowledge acquired by the pupil. Soviet educators do not employ objective tests to discover native intelligence and specific areas of ability.

Education of Alaskan Natives

A report on a cooperative research project

BECAUSE the Indians, Eskimos, and Aleuts of Alaska live in a land dominated by an alien culture, the objectives of their education have troubled educators and citizens in Alaska since the First Organic Act of 1884 established a school system for the Territory. Both the Federal Government and the Territorial Government have conducted schools for native children; Federal schools are in areas predominantly native, Territorial schools (now State) in larger communities predominantly non-native.*

Diverse opinions about native education have led both educators and citizens of Alaska to a realization of the need for a comprehensive survey of the program of education. In 1956 the University of Alaska requested financial assistance from the Office of Education under the Cooperative Research Program (Public Law 531) to conduct an investigation of native education at the elementary school, secondary school, and college levels. The Research Advisory Committee recommended the project and the Office provided the university with \$31,400 for the project.

The first step taken by the university was to establish a central coordinating committee to give broad and general direction to the research. At the suggestion of William K. Keller, general director of the study, the committee included representatives from the University of Alaska, the Bureau of Indian Affairs, and the Alaskan Department of Education, the organizations concerned with education. The Coordination Committee for the Alaskan Native Education

Project consisted of William K. Keller, director, Ivar Skarland, assistant director, Charles K. Ray, executive director, May W. Penrod, member, and Robert R. Wiegman, member.

Since the statistics of the Bureau of Indian Affairs and most Territorial Department of Education records include in the category "native" only those persons possessing one-fourth or more aboriginal blood (Indian, Eskimo, or Aleut), the study also adopted this qualification.

As time and funds permitted, the executive director of the project visited villages and representative geographic areas, observed conditions, conducted interviews, and obtained statistics from school records. Because limited funds made it impossible for the executive director to travel to all native schools in Alaska, he visited communities selected on the basis of accessibility, geographic location, size, and unusual education conditions, such as low dropout rate and high academic standing on tests.

Much detail and specialized research had to be sacrificed in order to cover 155 schools (with enrollments of 8,800) in an area of a half million square miles. To narrow the focus of the study more directly on schools enrolling native students, the investigators restricted the study to schools in which one-half or more pupils enrolled were natives. Additional studies were conducted of five integrated schools in Fairbanks where native pupils were a minority to determine the comparative level of achievement of native and nonnative pupils and the educational and sociological problems faced by the pupils.

Many persons were consulted about various phases of the project—educational specialists, teachers, administrators, and long-term Alaskan resi-

dents. Outstanding natives, carefully selected, were interviewed. Many diverse opinions were received about the adequacy of present education programs and the objectives that schools should pursue.

The investigators saw the purpose of the study as a development of broad and encompassing guidelines for an educational program for Alaskan natives—guidelines based on an analysis of data collected from laymen and by experts in various fields, on statistical information, and on technical references.

From the final report submitted by the project staff to the Office of Education, *School Life* prints here the Conclusions and Recommendations.

The report, entitled "A Program of Education for Alaskan Natives," was prepared by Charles K. Ray, executive director, Alaskan Native Education Project.

Conclusions

Change is inevitable in a rapidly expanding society. That the way of life for Alaskan natives has undergone drastic revision and faces even more upheaval in the generations to come is indisputable. The role of education in easing the transition of a minority group involuntarily yet inexorably caught in the process of acculturation has been the major concern of this study.

The exact place which Alaskan natives will occupy in the new State of Alaska hinges in part upon the future of the new State itself and can only be surmised. In discussing the factors upon which Alaska's future economy relies, Jensen states:

If I am correct in assuming the existence of the above mentioned forces in the domestic and world

**School Life*, March 1958, carries a story on Alaskan schools that explains the functions of the two school systems.

economy, there seems to be a basis for cautious optimism with regard to the future of the Alaskan economy . . . Personally, I think that we are warranted in assuming that the civilian sector of the Alaskan economy will grow in the years ahead; maybe not at a violent and breathtaking rate, but at a solid pace.¹

Regardless of the rate of development of the Alaskan economy, the native people are committed to the task of finding their way in a new culture and a new way of life which will involve the development of new values and the dropping of many vestiges of their own culture. Such a

these people want to settle for a lower standard of living than is maintained by the average citizen, nor do they wish to be wards of the government. The desire on the part of the people for prestige, self-respect, and economic independence has been demonstrated in numerous intangible, yet emphatic, ways.

Education can serve as one vital influencing force designed to decrease the differences in attainment and opportunity which exist at the present time between native and nonnative groups. Therefore, the long-range objectives of the schools must be pointed toward an eventual common education for all, regardless of race.

been made in the field of education since the meager appropriation of \$25,000 was allotted to Sheldon Jackson in 1885 for the organization and administration of schools in Alaska. Elementary schools are operated in most rural villages. High school facilities exist for those residing in certain communities and for students who qualify for admittance to the government boarding school. Financial assistance is being offered in increasing amounts to students with adequate preparation who are desirous of continuing their education beyond the secondary school level. But much remains to be done.

Despite the fact that schools have been established in various Alaskan communities for more than half a century, an enormous gap in the education and economic well-being still exists between natives and nonnatives in the Territory of Alaska. The extent of the gap and reasons for the lag have been studied and recommendations made for improving the existing situation.

Major findings include:

(1) Standardized achievement test results indicate considerable retardation of native students. Nonverbal test results show less retardation than do tests which rely heavily upon verbal skills.

(2) Academic achievement and overall adjustment of native students in public schools with mixed enrollments fall below that of nonnative pupils.

(3) There is a slight inverse relationship between degree of native blood and academic achievements. This relationship is attributed to the nonnative influences resulting from mixed marriages—not to racial composition.

(4) The home background is one of the strongest forces in determining the achievement and adjustment of native pupils enrolled in public schools.

(5) Forty percent of students in native schools are overage in relation to normal age-grade placement. There is marked variation in over-



Schools surveyed for the cooperative research project on native education in Alaska lie as far apart as Barrow on the Arctic Ocean and Ketchikan near the State's southernmost tip. In all, the study covered 155 schools enrolling 8,800 native children, in a territory of over half a million miles.

process must be a voluntary one; still there are myriad evidences to support the claim that the people themselves desire the change. No longer do

¹ Hans E. Jensen (Associate Professor of Economics, University of Alaska), "The Alaskan Economy under Statehood: An Appraisal of the Unappraisable" (unpublished research paper, Nov. 3, 1958), p. 8. (Type-written.)

Yet the immediate instructional program must be planned to account for the enormous differences in the backgrounds, values, and orientation of the native students in the diverse regions of the Territory. An intelligent understanding by the teachers of the problems faced by those "caught between two worlds" is essential.

Significant accomplishments have

age grade placement among districts of the Territory.

(6) There is a direct relationship between early dropout and age-grade placement in native schools.

(7) Ability to use and understand English ranks high as a factor in school promotion. Promotion practices are often realistically based on standards developed for nonnative schools.

(8) Few native students are enrolled in post-high-school educational institutions. Of those who do register, few graduate. Dropout rate is due to academic and social difficulties. Transcript analysis indicates that English and mathematics present the greatest hurdles.

(9) Instructional materials used in native schools are designed for schools in the continental United States and are inappropriate for use in remote Alaskan schools enrolling bilingual and non-English speaking students. In addition, instructional techniques commonly used in native schools are not adapted, in many instances, to take account of the restricted environmental background and English handicaps of the learner.

(10) School facilities in Alaska are inadequate to meet the present and projected demands of Alaskan natives for increased educational opportunities.

(11) Inadequacy of school facilities is critical at the secondary school level. Only one overcrowded government boarding high school, which was forced to reject two out of three new applicants for the 1958-59 school year,¹ is being maintained in Alaska. Several small rural high schools in the larger native communities struggle for existence in the face of inadequate facilities, limited staff, and restrictive, rigidly academic, and unsuitable course offerings.

(12) The secondary school "bottleneck" has exerted its negative influence on both the elementary schools

and higher educational institutions.

(13) Native parents have higher educational aspirations for their children than do many teachers. Over 50 percent of the teachers questioned, felt that a high school education was not necessary for native students.

(14) Many teachers lack the specialized training necessary to comprehend and assess the problems of teaching in native schools.

(15) The qualifications of teachers employed in schools with predominantly native enrollment are unsatisfactory.

(16) Rapid teacher turnover, oversized classes, excessive teacher load, and substandard and inadequate physical facilities are other problem areas brought out in the study.

Recommendations

Based on the findings of the study, certain recommendations were formulated. They include:

(1) Special provisions must be made for students with restricted backgrounds and lack of readiness for dealing with verbal abstractions.

(2) Lengthening of the school year to include camping activities, work experience, dramatics, and related offerings would be beneficial.

(3) Specially prepared instructional materials designed for native students are needed. Instructional techniques such as those developed for teaching English as a second language should be explored through future research studies for possible suitability.

(4) These instructional techniques should be implemented and adapted in inservice workshops held for teachers of native students—ideally to be held at the University of Alaska for teachers from both the Bureau of Indian Affairs and the Territorial Department of Education.

(5) Regional 4-year high schools should be established in communities selected on the basis of present population and probable future growth. These schools should be comprehensive in scope. Prevocational as well as academic course offerings should be made available. In the academic

departments, particular stress should be placed on mathematics and English.

(6) Cottage-type housing facilities should be arranged to provide accommodations for students who would attend the regional high schools nearest their homes.

(7) Vocational education is needed for students at the post-high-school level. The specific training should be geared to the employment demands of the region.

(8) In general, vocational schools should be post-high-school institutions. However, opportunity should be available for the youth who does not complete high school or the adult without a high school education to receive specialized training in a specific trade.

(9) Present teaching personnel not meeting prescribed minimum standards should be replaced.

(10) An energetic recruitment program should be undertaken to publicize the challenge and satisfactions of teaching in native schools.

(11) Recruitment and selection of qualified personnel must be supplemented by a continual program of inservice education for all teaching and administrative personnel.

(12) Additional research should be conducted in various areas of native education. The most urgent need for additional study is in the field of instructional techniques and materials for native schools.

No drastic or revolutionary proposals have been suggested in this report which call for major reversals of present operating procedures. Although weaknesses in the present systems are apparent, the general direction in which the schools are moving is encouraging. In addition, the likelihood that drastic revisions would be accepted and implemented is slim indeed. The schools and society are so closely intertwined that one cannot stretch too far from the other. While education as a force can and should help to shape society, it must be tempered by realism and the safeguard of public acceptance.

¹ Max W. Penrod, "A Covenant," *Highlights in Education*, VI (November 1958), U.S. Bureau of Indian Affairs, Juneau Area Office, I.

Appropriations for Education: Fiscal Year 1960

APPROPRIATIONS for the Office of Education for fiscal year 1960 total \$12.8 million for salaries and expenses, including \$3.2 million for the cooperative research program. The appropriation bill (Public Law 86-158) provides \$418,295,581 for six grant programs administered by the Office.

One program is new: the training of teachers of mentally retarded children. Authorized in 1958 by Public Law 85-926, it provides for grants to public or other nonprofit institutions of higher education and to State educational agencies to promote the expansion of teaching in the education of mentally retarded children.

Funds for the National Defense Education Act for fiscal year 1960, the first full year of operation for the program are shown below.

Program	Appropriations (in thousands)	Percent of increase
Student loans.....	\$31,000	0
Science, mathematics, and foreign language instruction ¹	64,000	12
Graduate fellowships.....	13,450	153.7
Guidance, counseling, and testing.....	20,000	92.3
Language development.....	10,050	101
Educational media research.....	3,000	100
Area vocational programs.....	7,000	86.7
Statistical services.....	1,500	50
Total.....	150,000	30

¹ Public Law 86-158 provides that no part of this appropriation can be used to "purchase science, mathematics, and modern language teaching equipment, or equipment suitable for use for teaching in such fields of education, which can be identified as originating in or having been exported from a Communist country, unless such equipment is unavailable from any other source."

All titles of the act except II, student loans, have received increased allotments. But the \$31 million for 1960 and funds carried from 1959 will enable colleges and universities to make loans to about 120,000 students.

Since the beginning of the fiscal year, 18 States have requested \$16.2 million for equipment and minor remodeling of facilities for teaching science, mathematics, and modern foreign languages and for State supervisory and related services under title III.

In addition to continuing the 1,000 fellowships awarded in fiscal 1959 for a second year, the 1960 appropriation for title IV will make possible 1,500 first-year fellowships.

Approximately 238,000 nonpublic school students in 35 States are expected to take part in testing programs under title V as compared with 188,000 in 28 States in 1959. This year's appropriation will make possible 75 summer counseling and guidance training institutes in 1960 and 23 regular session institutes during the 1960-61 academic year; they will enroll about 4,000 persons—1,600 more than in 1959.

The number of language and area centers for the teaching of major modern languages will be increased from 19 to 40 and about 442 foreign language fellowships will be awarded this year under title VI as compared with 171 in fiscal 1959. There will be 36 summer language institutes and 5 academic year institutes, as against 12 in 1959.

Since July 1, 61 research grants and 12 contracts for research and experimentation in the educational use of television, motion picture, radio, and related media have been approved, and another 50 grants and contracts will probably be approved, under title VII.

Funds on a 50-50 basis have been obligated to 28 States for the improvement of educational statistics so far in fiscal 1960 under title X for a total of \$745,288.

Appropriations for the construction, operation, and maintenance of schools in federally affected areas were decreased by less than 1 percent for 1960, but provide for payment of 100 percent of entitlements under the basic acts (Public Laws 815 and 874). The appropriation of nearly \$164 million for operation and maintenance will provide assistance for the education of about 1.4 million children whose parents live or work on Federal property, 81,000 more than last year. The appropriation of \$61.1 million for construction will provide about 3,160 classrooms and related facilities for 91,640 children as compared with last year's 3,918 classrooms for 109,705 children.

Appropriations for Fiscal Year 1960

Program	1960 appropriations	Increase or decrease over 1959	
		Dollars	Percent
Office of Education, salaries and expenses ¹	\$12,800,000	+ \$3,172,500	+ 33
Training of teachers of mentally retarded children.....	1,000,000	New
National Defense Education Act.....	150,000,000	+ 34,700,000	+ 30
Vocational education ²	33,702,081	+ 1,083,500	+ 3
Library services ³	6,000,000
Land-grant colleges ⁴	2,501,500
School assistance in federally affected areas.....	225,092,000	- 308,000	- 0.14

¹ Includes \$3,200,000 for the cooperative research program.

² The original appropriation for fiscal year 1959 was greater by \$1.1 million, but this amount was declared unobligated at the end of the fiscal year and was transferred to another account. With the continuing grant of \$7,161,312 the program received \$40,863,393 for fiscal 1960.

³ Provision is made for allotments to States on the basis of \$7.5 million so that States with matching ability can secure maximum allotment under the enabling act.

⁴ With the continuing grant of \$2.6 million annually the 1960 total is \$5.1 million.

NDEA: 1958-1959

A Year of Progress

ONE YEAR after the President signed the National Defense Education Act, on September 2, 1958, the act shows promise of living up to its advanced billing by Commissioner Derthick as the "third milestone in American educational history." Secretary Flemming said at his press conference on July 28, 1959: "The taxpayer is getting a good return for his investment in the Defense Educational activities. I am satisfied, very much so, with nearly all that has been happening since the act was signed."

A look at the record supports the Secretary's conclusion. Within the first year, 54 States and Territories (all except the Panama Canal Zone) submitted plans for participating in one or more NDEA programs and many programs were in full operation. Furthermore, there was evidence that NDEA had stimulated State and local interest and action to improve schools. However, the full effect of the act will be felt for the first time this year.

In discharging its responsibility for administering the act, the goal of the Office of Education has been to design programs workable in the States, to insure efficient use of funds and maximum benefit to education, and to follow strictly the intent of the Congress which forbids any "Federal direction, supervision, or control over curriculum, program of instruction, administration, or personnel of any educational institution, or school system."

In developing administrative plans, procedures, and policies, the Office obtained the advice of leading educators, including the chief State school officers, heads of national educational organizations, and representatives of institutions of higher education, and the services of recognized professional men and women

to administer the various programs established under the act.

NDEA is founded on standards of excellence. It is designed to strengthen these phases of education—instruction in mathematics, science, and modern foreign languages; development of talented students; and improvement of teachers, teaching, and teaching materials. The programs authorized by each of the nine titles are, however, not isolated; each reinforces the other; consequently the cumulative effect is the improvement of education at all levels, in colleges and universities, State education agencies, and local school systems.

The major accomplishments under each program are briefly reviewed in the following paragraphs.

Title II: Student Loans

From the appropriation for fiscal year 1959 the Office distributed approximately \$30.5 million to 1,192 colleges and universities for loans to students in good academic standing. Since each institution had to contribute \$1 of its own funds for each \$9 of Federal funds it received, \$33.8 million was available under the program. The Office also lent \$117,337 to colleges and universities that were otherwise unable to contribute to the loan fund.

Title III: Strengthening Science, Mathematics, and Language Instruction

Equipment and remodeling

As of June 30, 1959, 51 States and Territories had submitted plans for participating in the program; 49 plans had been approved. Payments were being made from the 1959 appropriation of \$49.3 millions for the purchase of equipment and materials to be used to improve the teaching of

mathematics, science, and modern foreign languages and for minor remodeling of laboratories to accommodate the equipment.

Applications from 88 nonprofit private schools in 32 States were approved for a total of \$1,104,919; the average loan was for \$12,556 and the median \$6,000. Loans ranged from less than \$1,000 to \$245,000 in individual schools.

Strengthening supervisory service

By June 30, \$1,130,756 from the fiscal year 1959 appropriation had been paid to State education agencies to enable them to improve their supervisory services to public elementary and secondary schools in mathematics, science, and modern foreign languages.

Title IV: National Defense Fellowships

For fiscal 1959, the \$5.3 million appropriated provided for 1,000 graduate fellowships, each with a stipend of \$2,000 and an average of 2 dependents at \$400 each, and a payment of not more than \$2,500 to the institution at which he is enrolled for the cost of operating the new program.

During the year 169 institutions in 46 States proposed 1,040 new or expanded programs of graduate training for 6,000 fellowships. The proposals were reviewed by a 12-member National Advisory Committee who recommended to the Commissioner of Education the programs to be approved. From those approved, 1,000 fellowships were awarded for study at 123 graduate schools representing new or expanded programs.

A recent analysis of the graduate fellowships awarded indicates that the program has been successful in meeting the requirements of the act that wider geographical distribution of

graduate facilities be promoted in approval of new or expanded programs. The analysis shows that 8 of the States which produce the most doctorates were among the 10 States which received the fewest awards.

Title V: Guidance, Counseling, and Testing

Part A, State programs

Fifty States and Territories submitted plans for improving their guidance programs, including testing, and all were approved. Some States submitted plans in time to get money for the 1958-59 spring term. A total of \$6,124,964 was paid out under part A.

A total of 728 applications were filed from 26 States and the District of Columbia after their State plans had been approved. In these States the educational agency is not authorized by law to pay for testing of students. The Commissioner withheld \$50,752 from State allotments for financing their testing programs.

Part B, Institutes

During the summer, 50 short-term counseling and guidance training institutes were conducted by colleges and universities, with an enrollment of 2,209 teachers and counselors from secondary schools. Seven 1959-60 regular session institutes established (5 for one semester only) at colleges and universities will emphasize training of secondary school teachers or counselors who have had little counseling experience.

The Commissioner obligated, under contract, \$2,248,319 for short-term institutes and \$1,139,670 for regular session institutes.

Title VI: Language Development Centers of instruction

Nineteen centers of instruction in languages which are critically needed by business and government and which are rarely if ever taught in this country were established at colleges and universities. They are in operation this fall and are providing instruction in the language and in the economic and cultural aspects of the country in which the languages are spoken.

The languages most critically needed at this time fall into two groups: The first group includes the following languages which are spoken by more than 1 billion people and offered by few colleges and universities in this country: Arabic, Chinese, Hindustani, Japanese, Portuguese, and Russian. The second group includes Bengali, Burmese, Finnish, modern Hebrew, Hungarian, Indonesian-Malay, Khalkha (Outer Mongolia), Korean, Marathi (India), Persian, Polish, Serbo-Croatian, Singhalese (Ceylon), Swahili (East Africa), Tamil (Ceylon and India), Telugu (India), Thai, and Turkish.

The Federal Government is paying up to one-half the cost of operating the centers. From the 1959 appropriation, \$99,653 was obligated through contracts. Generally students at the centers receive no stipends.

Foreign language fellowships

Language fellowships have been awarded to 171 students. Each fellow is a graduate student, well ad-

vanced in the study of language and has given reasonable assurance that he will be available, after completing his studies, for teaching modern language in a college or university or for other public service. Awards were made by the Commissioner from nominations submitted by the colleges and universities. Students will study at 25 institutions offering programs in the 6 critically needed languages: 22 are in Arabic, 32 in Chinese, 10 in Hindustani, 24 in Japanese, 14 in Portuguese, and 69 in Russian.

Some of the 1,000 fellowships awarded to students under title IV will be in the field of modern foreign languages.

Of the 171 fellowships awarded, 11 are for summer sessions; 25 are for study beginning in the summer and continuing through the 1959-60 academic year; and 135 are for the 1959-60 year. The average amount of each award for summer study is \$557; for summer session and academic year, \$3,606; and for the academic year alone, \$2,960. The figures cover stipend and allowance



Celebrating the first anniversary of the NDEA in Washington, Sept. 2, 1959, are left to right, Peter Muirhead, director, Financial Aid Branch; Herbert Smith, chief, Science, Mathematics, and Foreign Languages Section; John Ludington, director, Aid to State and Local Schools Branch; George Decker, chief, Loans to Schools Section; Frank Sievers, chief, Guidance, Counseling, and Testing Section; and Lloyd King, chief, State Plans and Reports Section. The celebration came at the end of a 5-day workshop during which 11 experts from State agencies and colleges met with staff members to develop procedures for evaluating the effects of NDEA on guidance, counseling, and testing.

for dependents. The total cost of the stipends awarded under the language fellowship program for the 1959-60 academic year and paid from fiscal 1959 funds is \$500,342.

Research and studies

Twenty contracts for research, studies, and surveys on more effective methods of teaching and the development of specialized teaching materials in modern foreign languages were made with colleges, universities, and individuals. Among them are a 3-year survey of all aspects of language instruction in the United States; development of Spanish dialog films and grammar pictures; development of secondary school instructional materials in French, German, Spanish, and Russian; and a 3-year study of Uralic-Altaic languages.

Approximately \$2.4 million has been obligated for them from 1959 funds.

In many of the important languages, including a number of official languages, there is a lack of sufficient instructional materials, including a basic course with an elementary textbook and tapes for oral practice, a reference grammar based on sound structural analysis of the language, a set of graded readers with useful content, and a contemporary dictionary suitable for students. The act provides for the establishment of study and research programs to develop such materials for the use of the centers.

Language institutes

During the summer 925 elementary and secondary school teachers of French, German, Spanish, and Russian attended 12 modern foreign language institutes, and had special briefing in the effective use of experimental teaching materials developed for the institutes.

Total cost of the language institute program is \$1,584,000; all were financed from the 1959 appropriation.

For public school teachers the act provides a stipend of \$75 a week and \$15 additional for each dependent.

Approximately 250 colleges and universities expressed an interest in summer institutes, but contracts could be offered to only 12. The first university to get an institute underway received 1,500 applications for enrollment within 4 weeks, although it could accept only 100 persons.

A 12-member study group, in teams of 2 or 3, visited each of the institutes twice and will submit an evaluation by October 21, to be used as a guide in setting up programs under the 1960 appropriation.

Title VII: Research and Experimentation in Educational Media

Of the 350 proposals for research in the educational uses of television, motion pictures, and related media submitted from 40 States and the District of Columbia, 69 contracts were awarded for 23 of them for a total of \$1,349,985; the other 45 projects await funds from the 1960 appropriation. Sixteen dissemination projects were also approved and contracts were awarded for 13 of them for a total cost of \$249,981.

Proposals were submitted by 51 colleges and universities, 9 nonprofit organizations, including television channels, 3 State departments of education, and 1 county school district; 3 were for cooperative projects to be conducted by 2 or more agencies.

Kinds of media being studied include: 12 closed circuit television projects, 12 broadcast television projects, 14 video recordings, 3 audio materials, 13 motion pictures, 4 still

The deepest satisfaction I have experienced in the impressive record achieved by NDEA during this very first year stemmed from the fact that thousands of professional and lay leaders have been involved at all levels in the development of program, guidelines, and policies. This, I am convinced, is one of the key factors in the success of the act so far.

Lawrence G. Derthick

projected materials, 2 teaching materials, and 15 combinations of media.

Expenditures from 1959 appropriations under title VII total \$1,599,966.

Title VIII: Area Vocational Education Programs

Allotments from the 1959 appropriation of \$3,750,000 were made to 49 States and 1 Territory. Amounts released by the States not needing their full allotment were reallocated to other States that could use them.

The greatest number of vocational courses offered in many States were of the extension type—because such courses could be offered where needed in vocational schools, comprehensive high schools, community colleges, and technical institutes. Most of the courses offered training for highly skilled technician occupations in such fields as electronics, drafting and design, tool and die design, instrumentation, industrial chemistry.

Title X: Improvement of Statistical Services of State Educational Agencies

The Office paid a total of \$365,930 to the 29 States whose plans for improving the statistical services of their State departments were approved in time to obtain grants from 1959 funds.

State plans reveal the uses States will make of Federal funds. Among them are the following: By adding staff members, 42 States; adopting standard terminology, definitions, and measures recommended in Office of Education handbooks, 41 States; speeding up the collecting, analyzing, and reporting of data through the installation of data processing machines, 17 States; expanding machine units, 18 States; and conducting workshops, conferences, inservice training for employees, 44 States.

Three-fourths of the States indicated that they would use Federal funds to begin or expand their use of machines that will process and analyze data.

NDEA Improves State Schools

The article reprinted below was inserted in the Congressional Record, August 24, 1959, at the request of the Honorable Ed Edmondson, Member of the House of Representatives from Oklahoma. It was written by Harry Culver, United Press International at Oklahoma City, and appeared first in the Bartlesville (Okla.) Examiner-Enterprise, August 20, 1959.

Defense Education Act Improves State Schools

OKLAHOMA CITY.—The National Defense Education Act got off to a million-dollar launching its first 6 months in Oklahoma, the State department of education reported today.

Under the act, which didn't get into operation until early this year, 340 school districts in 75 counties have already started improvement programs, principally in the field of science.

"It has really given science training a real shot in the arm," said Dr. Oliver Hodge, State superintendent of public instruction.

Points Up Results

While the full effect will take years to measure, Earl Cross, administrator of the program for Oklahoma, pointed to these concrete results already appearing:

Many small and middle-sized schools have added physics, chemistry, and foreign languages to their curriculums.

Four to six schools are expected to teach Russian this coming year.

A spot check of 26 schools showed a 1,300-percent increase in the amount spent for laboratory equipment.

Funds Matched

Cross said he has been amazed and gratified by the response and results, which have been financed by only a handful of dollars in relation to the million spent on common-school education in Oklahoma.

Under the act, Oklahoma is expected to receive \$844,000 per year for 4 years to buy equipment and fa-

cilities for improvement in science, mathematics, and foreign languages.

This amount must be matched dollar for dollar by the local school district.

The first Federal grant to an Oklahoma school was authorized March 9, 1959. Between then and June 30, \$532,000 in Federal cash was approved for schools in every county of the State except Cimarron and Jefferson. Matched locally, this provided for a \$1,062,000 program.

Stresses Math, Language

Hodge said the \$312,000 left over can be added to the current fiscal year's fund. This will make possible a \$2.3-million program for the 1959-60 school year.

Cross said science projects received priority the first year. The coming year, equal emphasis will be given to mathematics and foreign languages.

"The science laboratories in most Oklahoma high schools were in a deplorable condition," Cross said. "Moreover, the elementary science curriculum had amounted to little more than reading text materials."

He said most schools were so poorly equipped that first year expenditures went for very basic equipment, and for remodeling that included such items as running water, electricity and gas for laboratories.

"Seven Up" Congress

In the mathematics field, purchases have included TV sets, films, slide rules, measuring instruments and geometric figures to "liven up" courses.

On the language front, money has gone for tape recorders, disk records,

reference reading material and film. The step-up in this program is shown by approvals for 1959-60 for a \$30,000 project at Enid and a \$75,000 project at Midwest City.

While this fiscal year has barely started, 114 schools have already applied for \$217,000 in Federal money for the coming term.

Hodge said Oklahoma is far ahead of most States in starting the program because the administrative machinery was set up in the Sooner State even before the Federal money became available.

Wise Spending Prompted

He said the act has provided a terrific incentive to improve training. And Cross pointed out the local dollar-for-dollar matching requirement encourages a school to spend its money wisely.

Cross said a random check of 25 schools showed they spent \$1.24 per pupil for laboratories in 1957-58 and \$16.54 in 1958-59.

Ardmore boosted its expenditure from \$1,081 to \$28,000, Bethany from \$135 to \$3,044, Clinton from \$576 to \$6,234, Duncan from \$813 to \$19,030, Vinita from \$350 to \$5,024, Beggs from \$44 to \$1,000, Lawton from \$710 to \$22,882, Elk City from \$259 to \$6,430.

A separate phase of the act sets up \$72,000 per year in Federal funds for testing and guidance. Sixty-seven districts in 42 counties received \$69,000 in Federal funds under this program up to June 30.

"Obviously," Cross said, "conditions more conducive to learning will soon prevail in most Oklahoma public schools."

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COLLEGE AND UNIVERSITY ENDOWMENT INVESTMENTS, A SURVEY AS OF JUNE 30, 1958, by *W. Robert Bokelman, J. Harvey Cain, and Ernest V. Hollis*. 1959. 48 pp. 35 cents. (Cir. No. 579).

ENGINEERING ENROLLMENTS AND DEGREES 1958, by *Justin C. Lewis and Henry H. Armsby*. 1959. 50 pp. 40 cents. (Cir. No. 555).

FINANCIAL ACCOUNTING FOR SCHOOL ACTIVITIES, by *Everett V. Samuelson, George G. Tankard, Jr., and Hoyt W. Pope*. 1959. 109 pp. 50 cents. (Bulletin 1959, No. 21).

INSERVICE EDUCATION OF TEACHERS OF VOCATIONAL AGRICULTURE, CRITERIA FOR EVALUATING STATEWIDE PROGRAMS, by *V. R. Cardozier*. 1959. 52 pp. 25 cents. (Voc. Div. Bul. No. 277).

OPENING (FALL) ENROLLMENT IN HIGHER EDUCATION, 1958: ANALYTIC REPORT, by *Edith M. Huddleston and Hazel C. Poole*. 1959. 30 pp. 30 cents. (Cir. No. 545).

PROGRESS OF PUBLIC EDUCATION IN THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA 1958-59. In 4 languages. 1959. 143 pp. 55 cents.

SOVIET COMMITMENT TO EDUCATION, REPORT OF THE FIRST OFFICIAL U.S. EDUCATION MISSION TO THE USSR. 1959. 135 pp. 70 cents.

STATISTICS OF LOCAL SCHOOL SYSTEMS: 1955-56, COUNTY UNITS, by *Gerald Kahn*. 1959. 91 pp. 35 cents. (Biennial Survey of Education in the United States 1954-56, Chapter 3, Section III).

SUMMARIES OF STUDIES IN AGRICULTURAL EDUCATION, AN ANNOTATED BIBLIOGRAPHY OF STUDIES IN AGRICULTURAL EDUCATION WITH CLASSIFIED SUBJECT INDEX. 1959. 56 pp. 25 cents. (Voc. Div. Bul. No. 275).

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(Request single copies from Publications Inquiry Unit, U.S. Office of Education, Washington 25, D.C. In requesting copies, please include publication number).

INFORMATION ON EDUCATION AROUND THE WORLD, Series Nos. 17-22, July 1959, by *Margaret L. King and George A. Male*:

EDUCATIONAL DATA: KINGDOM OF THE NETHERLANDS. 5 pp. (IEAW No. 22).

EDUCATIONAL DATA: NORTHERN IRELAND. 5 pp. (IEAW No. 21).

EDUCATIONAL DATA: REPUBLIC OF FRANCE. 9 pp. (IEAW No. 19).

EDUCATIONAL DATA: REPUBLIC OF ICELAND. 5 pp. (IEAW No. 17).

EDUCATIONAL DATA: REPUBLIC OF IRELAND. 5 pp. (IEAW No. 20).

EDUCATIONAL DATA: REPUBLIC OF ITALY. 5 pp. (IEAW No. 18).

LIBRARY STATISTICS OF LARGER COLLEGES AND UNIVERSITIES, 1956-57, by *John Carson Rather*. 1959. 13 pp. (Cir. No. 578).

MATERIALS IN RUSSIAN OF POSSIBLE USE IN HIGH SCHOOL CLASSES, by *Ilo Remer*. July 1959. 25 pp. (Cir. No. 592).

TEACHER EXCHANGE OPPORTUNITIES UNDER THE INTERNATIONAL EDUCATION EXCHANGE PROGRAM, 1960-61. 1959. 33 pp.

